

Spain ~ Drummond ~ Goodlad

EDUCATIONAL
LEADERSHIP
AND THE
ELEMENTARY
SCHOOL
PRINCIPAL

Education - Elementary



UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

FORM 516

UNZ & CO., N.Y.

~~955~~
~~4019~~

~~699~~

~~955~~

~~8/18~~



~~State Institute of Education~~
~~Wang~~
~~...~~

*Educational Leadership and
the Elementary School Principal*

RINEHART BOOKS IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

R. WILL BURNETT

Teaching Science in the Elementary School

LUELLA COLE

The Elementary School Subjects

The Improvement of Reading

Teaching in the Elementary School

MARGARET HAMILTON ERDT

Teaching Art in the Elementary School

LAVONE A. HANNA, GLADYS L. POTTER, AND NEVA HAGAMAN

Unit Teaching in the Elementary School

LILLIAN HOLLOWELL

A Book of Children's Literature (Revised Edition)

WILLIAM B. LEVENSON AND EDWARD STASHEFF

Teaching through Radio and Television (Revised Edition)

HENRY J. OTTO

Social Education in Elementary Schools

WITH HAZEL FLOYD AND MARGARET ROUSE

Principles of Elementary Education (Revised Edition)

RALPH C. PRESTON

Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School

J. GALEN SAYLOR AND WILLIAM M. ALEXANDER

Curriculum Planning for Better Teaching and Learning

CHARLES R. SPAIN, HAROLD D. DRUMMOND, AND JOHN I. GOODLAD

Educational Leadership and the Elementary School Principal



Good Principals Work Effectively with People

COURTESY OF THE CHATTANOOGA, TENNESSEE, PUBLIC SCHOOLS





~ CHARLES R. SPAIN

*Dean, College of Education, University of New Mexico
Superintendent-Elect, Albuquerque Public Schools*

~ HAROLD D. DRUMMOND

*Professor of Elementary Education, George Peabody College
for Teachers*

~ JOHN I. GOODLAD

*Director of the Division of Teacher Education, Emory University,
and of the Agnes Scott-Emory Teacher Education Program*

*Educational Leadership
and the
Elementary School Principal*



RINEHART & COMPANY, INC., NEW YORK

372.2
SPA

13.10.93

7513



Copyright © 1956 by Charles R. Spain,
Harold D. Drummond, and John I. Goodlad
Printed in the United States of America
All Rights Reserved
Library of Congress Catalog Card Number: 56-6373

Preface

THE POSITION of elementary school principal has developed in rapid fashion during the twentieth century. From the status of record-keeper and major disciplinarian, this position has evolved to one of important leadership possibilities. The emphasis in this book is, therefore, placed on the leadership role which a principal of an elementary school should assume. The authors of the book believe strongly that changing concepts of educational administration and changes in the status of the principalship now present opportunities for educational leadership which are just beginning to be realized. The elementary school principal of the future must be an educational leader rather than merely a technician if he is to realize the potentialities of his position. This book is designed to be of assistance in implementing the leadership role and has therefore been written primarily for in-service elementary school principals and prospective elementary school principals.

Educational Leadership and the Elementary School Principal is organized into five major sections, with the leadership role of the elementary school principal as the unifying theme. The first section is designed to provide a background for the whole book. The nature of educational leadership, the evolution of the elementary school principalship, and the legal and ethical aspects of the principalship are the major emphases of this section. The second section focuses attention upon the leadership aspects of program development in the elementary school.

The remaining three sections are devoted to an examination of the principal's leadership role in provision of pupil services, administration of the school, and community and professional relations. The chapters in these three sections provide a look at the more or less traditional responsibilities of the elementary school principal within the framework of educational leadership.

At the end of each chapter except the last there is a section on "Problems for Discussion and Further Study," as well as a list of "Suggested Additional Readings."

Throughout this volume an effort has been made to help the reader catch a vision of what the elementary school principalship can become. The authors have deliberately attempted to develop a defensible and workable theory of leadership applicable to the elementary school. To supplement this theory, numerous suggestions have been given to show how the leadership role may operate in actual practice and in the daily activities of the principal. If this book enables its readers to become better leaders in elementary education, its purpose will be fulfilled.

The authors wish to acknowledge the significant contribution of President Hollis L. Caswell, Teachers College, Columbia University, through a review of the preliminary outline of this publication. Leland B. Jacobs, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; Arthur W. Foshay, Director, Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University; and G. Wesley Sowards, Associate Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, read the manuscript in entirety. We are particularly grateful for the comments of these three persons regarding organization and content.

THE AUTHORS

February, 1956

Contents

Preface

v

Section A

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IS THE EMERGING MAJOR
RESPONSIBILITY OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
PRINCIPAL

- 1 ~ *The Nature of Educational Leadership* 3
THE NATURE OF LEADERSHIP
DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP IS A PROCESS OF WORKING WITH
PEOPLE
QUALITIES POSSESSED BY GOOD LEADERS
PRINCIPLES FOR PRINCIPALS
- 2 ~ *The Development of the Elementary School Principalship* 24
SOME FACTORS AFFECTING DEVELOPMENT OF THE ELEMEN-
TARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP
CURRENT STATUS OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL
SUMMARY AND LOOK AHEAD
- 3 ~ *Legal and Ethical Aspects of the Elementary School Prin-
cipalship* 46
ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM
TEACHERS' RIGHTS AND WELFARE

THE CURRICULUM
 LEGAL ASPECTS OF RELATIONS WITH PUPILS
 A CHALLENGE TO LEADERSHIP

Section B

A MAJOR RESPONSIBILITY OF THE ELEMENTARY
 SCHOOL PRINCIPAL IS LEADERSHIP IN PROGRAM
 DEVELOPMENT

4 ~ *Leadership of the School Staff* 67

THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN PROVIDING STAFF LEADERSHIP
 SUMMARY

5 ~ *Leadership in Curriculum Planning and Program Development* 99

BASIC ISSUES AND PROBLEMS
 THE PRINCIPAL'S RESPONSIBILITIES IN IMPROVING THE CUR-
 RICULUM
 PRINCIPLES FOR CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT

6 ~ *The Development of Effective School Organization* 136

THE GRADED SCHOOL CONCEPT
 ORGANIZATIONAL MODIFICATIONS IN THE GRADED SCHOOL
 CURRENT TRENDS IN SCHOOL ORGANIZATION
 THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

Section C

EFFECTIVE EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP FOSTERS
 SERVICE TO THE INDIVIDUAL PUPIL

7 ~ *Leadership in Developing Pupil Personnel Policies* 163

PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION
 IDENTIFICATION, ADMISSION, AND ORIENTATION OF NEW
 PUPILS

PUPIL GROWTH THROUGH THE GRADES
MARKING, RECORDING, AND REPORTING

- 8 ~ *Leadership in Developing Pupil Personnel Policies (continued)* 191

CLASSIFYING PUPILS FOR INSTRUCTION
PUPIL PROGRESS THROUGH THE GRADES
THE TRANSITION INTO JUNIOR OR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL
SOME SPECIAL GUIDANCE PROBLEMS

- 9 ~ *The Use of Special School Services and Pupil Activities* 215

PUPIL WELFARE SERVICES
SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICES
PUPIL-CONDUCTED ACTIVITIES
GUIDING PRINCIPLES: A SUMMARY OF KEY IDEAS

Section D

LEADERSHIP IN ADMINISTRATION OF THE SCHOOL IS
AN IMPORTANT RESPONSIBILITY

- 10 ~ *Leadership in Administration of the School* 247

INTERPRETING BOARD AND ADMINISTRATIVE POLICIES TO
STAFF, PARENTS, AND PUPILS
IDENTIFYING THE ASPIRATIONS OF TEACHERS, PARENTS, AND
CHILDREN
SELECTING AND PROMOTING THE SCHOOL STAFF
KEEPING RECORDS AND REPORTS
SUMMARY

- 11 ~ *Leadership in Administration of the School (continued)* 277

ACCOUNTING FOR FUNDS
OBTAINING, STORING, AND DISTRIBUTING INSTRUCTIONAL SUP-
PLIES
CARING FOR THE SCHOOL PLANT AND EQUIPMENT
OPERATING THE SCHOOL OFFICE
PRINCIPLES OF ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP

Section E

THE EFFECTIVE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL SERVES AS A KEY
COMMUNITY AND PROFESSIONAL LEADER

12 ~ *The Elementary School as a Community Institution* 305

CONCEPTS OF THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

WAYS OF WORKING FOR IMPROVED RELATIONS BETWEEN
SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS: A CONTINUING CHALLENGE

13 ~ *The Challenge to Educational Leadership* 333

SO AS NOT TO DECEIVE OURSELVES

IN RECOGNITION OF SOME REAL OBSTACLES

THE REAL JOB AND THE PERSONAL CHALLENGE

Index 353

*Educational Leadership and
the Elementary School Principal*



Leadership is displayed when one person affects another person or a group of persons in such a way that common direction is given to their efforts. . . .

—Van Miller, ed., National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, *Providing and Improving Administrative Leadership for America's Schools* (Fourth Report; New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951), p. 15.

A "recognized leader" is a person who is seen by individuals or groups as helping or being able to help provide the means they desire to use to identify or attain their goals. —Gordon N. Mackenzie, Stephen M. Corey, and Associates, *Instructional Leadership* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954), p. 10.

Every great leader is a silent but eloquent witness to the fact that his power derives from his devotion, his loyalty and helpfulness to his followers in a common and important cause.

—Schuyler Dean Hoslett, ed., *Human Factors in Management* (rev. ed.; New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951), p. 7. Reprinted by permission from Harper & Brothers.

Humans have groped toward democracy not because people necessarily liked it, wanted it, found it foolproof or found it the simplest, easiest way. None of these is wholly the case. We hold fast to democracy *because there was and is no other alternative* if people are to get what they find they basically desire and require out of life.

—Ordway Tead, *The Art of Administration* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951), p. 73. Reprinted by permission from McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc.

. . . He who acts in as logical a manner as possible in the light of present knowledge is behaving intelligently and scientifically. He who bases his actions on ideas other than known facts is still behaving animistically.

—Earl C. Kelley and Marie I. Rasey, *Education and the Nature of Man* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952), p. 62.

Section A

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IS THE
EMERGING MAJOR RESPONSIBILITY OF
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

The principal in a modern elementary school holds a key position in the school system. The manner in which he discharges his responsibilities depends upon his conception of leadership and his understanding of himself. The principal may make most of the important decisions and convey them to the staff; he may hesitate to make decisions even when circumstances demand action; or he may recognize the importance of broad participation in decision making and attempt to provide effective democratic leadership.

The authors of this book recognize that situations differ and that it is difficult, therefore, to generalize concerning effective leadership. They know that answers once thought to be satisfactory regarding administrative leadership are not harmonious with what has been learned through basic researches in industry, sociology, psychology, psychiatry, and group dynamics. The authors recognize that the best elementary school principals are applying the results of research in their leadership positions. But many elementary schools fail to achieve their potential, because principals have not developed a conception of leadership which is based upon an adequate understanding of human behavior.

Leadership techniques can be learned, for human beings are not born leaders; rather, they achieve leadership status through contacts with others in a human society. But true leadership is more than manipulation—more than technique. Leadership is a process of working with others to identify and achieve desirable goals. End points, goals, objectives—call them what you will—are, therefore, crucial aspects of leadership, and these are dependent upon a person's conception of self and upon the values he strives to support. Since the central focus of this book is on the leadership responsibilities of the elementary school principal, this first section examines the nature of educational leadership. The section also includes a consideration of the historical background and current status of the elementary school principalship as well as a chapter on the legal and ethical aspects of this position.

I ~

The Nature of Educational Leadership

THREE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS are beginning the school year in different communities of approximately the same size. The school populations are comparable, the communities have similar problems, the faculties of the schools have comparable education and experience, and the school plants differ only slightly. Yet what do they do?

Edgar Williams arrives in the community two weeks before the beginning of school. He carefully checks the building and confers with the custodian concerning the progress of the reconditioning which had been planned for the summer. Before the school year begins, he makes sure that the books have arrived from the state depository and are organized for effective distribution. He assigns new staff members to rooms and works out schedules for using the cafeteria and playground. After carefully considering several possibilities, he draws up an assembly schedule for the year and assigns each teacher the responsibility for presenting an assembly program. He checks carefully to make sure that all details concerning the opening of school are planned. He decides that faculty meetings should be scheduled for Tuesday afternoons immediately after school on alternate weeks. Mr. Williams then plans his first "talk" to the teachers for the school year. It has been his custom for several years to deliver a rather comprehensive statement at the initial faculty meeting to make sure that all school policies are understood.

Joe Johnson attended summer school at a well-known teachers college. Consequently, he felt the need of a short vacation in the mountains before returning to his community. He returns from vacation on the Friday

evening immediately preceding the opening of school on Tuesday. Saturday is devoted to personal matters. On Sunday Mr. Johnson attends church and plays a round of golf later in the day. Late Sunday evening Mr. Johnson thinks casually about the opening of school and wonders whether the new teachers have arrived. Monday morning he gets to school bright and early and checks with the custodian and the cafeteria manager to make sure that the building and lunchroom are ready for operation the following day. As the teachers begin to arrive, he greets each of them warmly and enthusiastically and helps the new teachers meet those who are returning for another year. Most of the morning is spent renewing acquaintances and swapping stories of summer happenings.

At the early afternoon faculty meeting, Mr. Johnson explains that he has been too busy to attend to many of the details for getting the school year started, that books are still boxed (the way they came from the state depository), that no schedule has been worked out for the first day or two, and that he needs the help of the group for at least part of the afternoon. One of the teachers suggests that everything be continued in the same fashion as last year. The suggestion meets with instantaneous approval. The teachers who already have made their plans volunteer to help Mr. Johnson with his work. Three teachers who were in the school last year are designated to help the three teachers who are new to the system. The meeting breaks up in a few minutes, and all go to work.

Jack Smith arrives in the community a week before school opens, but he has been at work for some time. During the summer he had written all staff members suggesting that, if possible, they arrive at least three days before the opening of school. New members of the staff were urged to consult him upon arrival if they needed help in finding suitable housing. He telephones the superintendent of schools and learns that a meeting of supervisors and principals has been planned to discuss the current school year. He also telephones the teachers who live in the community and suggests that they meet with him to discuss final details concerning the picnic, which the staff had planned the previous spring, for the Friday evening before school opens. Four busy days are spent at school—checking with the custodian on the condition of the building, grounds, and equipment; handling details regarding books and supplies; going through accumulated mail; answering many questions raised by parents; and jotting down problems which the staff needs to consider Friday, Saturday, and Monday in its preschool sessions.

Mr. Smith re-reads the minutes of the last staff meeting in the spring and discovers that the group had asked him to duplicate a tentative listing of problems for discussion in the preschool meetings. Including the suggestions which had been made last spring, Mr. Smith duplicates the following:

SUGGESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How shall we help our new members adjust to our group and become a part of it?
 - (a) What problems and questions do they have with which we can help?
 - (b) Shall we ask certain returning staff members to accept responsibility for working closely with our new teachers? How do the new teachers feel about such a plan?
 - (c) What policies of the school system must the new teachers know? How can we help?
2. What coordinated planning do we need to do as a total staff in order to start the year effectively?
 - (a) What daily programing must we agree upon, such as the lunch period, play periods, interest and hobby times? What about supervision at play and lunch times?
 - (b) Was the plan we developed last year for providing directed play experiences before school satisfactory? Could it be improved?
 - (c) How shall we form sections in each grade?
 - (d) What needs to be done the first day of school to enroll pupils, distribute books, and eliminate conflicts in the use of space and materials?
3. How can we plan to eliminate many of the classroom interruptions we noted last spring?
 - (a) How serious is the problem? Do we have the data to support the generalization that the situation was bad?
 - (b) Who interrupts?
 - (c) Was it just "spring"? Will the problem be less crucial this fall?
4. What program shall we plan for our own professional growth this year?
 - (a) Shall we continue the program of self-evaluation we started last year?
 - (b) Shall we work on a specific problem identified last year?
 - (c) Shall we make no decision now—but appoint a committee to investigate possibilities, interview each member of the faculty individually, and report findings at a subsequent meeting?
5. How shall we provide some free time each day for each teacher, as we suggested last spring?
 - (a) What possibilities exist?
 - (b) What are the strengths and weaknesses of each possibility?
 - (c) Can pupils be active participants in solving the problem?
6. What can we do to help improve the Parent-Teacher Association?
 - (a) Do we want and need the P.T.A.?
 - (b) What do other schools do?
 - (c) Have we accepted our share of responsibility for the P.T.A.'s program?

To prepare for the meeting, Mr. Smith carefully thought through the questions which the group would discuss. He made notes of important ideas which he wanted to mention during the discussions. In several instances he developed specific proposals for action in order to save the group's time. In each such instance more than one choice was identified, and some supporting data were given.

Ideas Concerning Leadership Differ

Mr. Williams, Mr. Johnson, and Mr. Smith are all in positions of leadership; yet each has a different conception of the nature of educational leadership. Mr. Williams believes that his function as a principal is to make decisions and to convey these decisions to those who are administratively responsible to him. He handles routine matters efficiently, works hard, and tactfully informs teachers of what they are to do—thus convincing many of his teachers that they have a share in forming policy. Some faculty members resent having decisions made for them; but they admire the dispatch with which Mr. Williams handles difficulties, and are willing to put up with his dictatorial methods because of his other fine qualities. A few members of the staff, on the other hand, are delighted that Mr. Williams makes the decisions, since this procedure gives them more time for outside interests.

Mr. Johnson believes that his primary function as a principal is to organize the staff so that it will do the work which needs doing—especially his work. He believes in “cooperation”—but it is a one-way type of cooperation. “You cooperate with me” seems to be a fair analysis of Mr. Johnson's point of view. Nevertheless, he is relaxed and friendly with his teachers. Most of them like him very much personally and are willing to pitch in and help with his work, because he really is a lot of fun. A few of the older members of the staff remember that a former principal required each teacher to submit lesson plans two weeks prior to the opening of each six-weeks period, and they appreciate the freedom which Mr. Johnson permits.

Mr. Smith believes that he should stimulate staff members to work together harmoniously, and he accepts responsibility for helping develop procedures which enable them to focus their energies and attention upon important problems. He realizes that efficient handling of routine matters in the central office enables the teachers to provide better learning experiences for children. He works with the faculty in defining the goals of the school, making plans to achieve the agreed-upon goals, executing the plans, and evaluating progress toward desired goals.

Three elementary school principals. Three widely different ways of proceeding. Three conceptions of the leader's role. What is leadership?

What kind of leadership is needed in elementary schools if teachers are to perform at their best level? What type of leadership is needed in elementary schools if children are to become effective democratic citizens?

THE NATURE OF LEADERSHIP

The term "leadership" implies relations between persons.¹ Whether these relations are harmonious, mutually supporting, congenial, and friendly or whether they are fraught with distrust, deceit, and fear depends largely upon the nature of the leadership provided. Domination tends to breed unquestioning obedience on the surface; distrust and doubt within. Democratic leadership tends, on the other hand, to result in high morale and effective group action.² Since this book is primarily concerned with the elementary school principal, a status leader, the emphasis throughout the following discussion is on the type of leadership which the officially appointed or designated individual should evidence. It is apparent, of course, that the status leader—the elementary school principal—should work with the staff in such a way that goals are achieved and leadership emerges from the group.

Leadership Supports a Social Philosophy

Leadership functions in order to clarify and achieve objectives. The techniques and methods selected by the leader need to be so chosen that members of the group can define goals more clearly. Unless positive goals are identified, a group is not likely to have a feeling of oneness, and the deterioration of morale is almost inevitable.³ The methods used by the leader, moreover, should be in harmony with the objectives which the group identifies, or much wasted effort will result. In a democracy, leadership must support, strengthen, and improve democratic ideals. The leader needs to interpret such ideals through his behavior with individuals and groups.

Many attempts have been made to identify the foundational concepts of democracy.⁴ Among the most basic ideas are (1) The worth and dignity

¹ Van Miller, ed., *National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, Providing and Improving Administrative Leadership for America's Schools* (Fourth Report; New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951), p. 15.

² For documentation of these generalizations, see Paul Pigors, *Leadership or Domination* (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935); Ordway Tead, *The Art of Leadership* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1935); and Leslie Day Zeleny, "Leadership," in Walter S. Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (rev. ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950).

³ David Krech and Richard S. Crutchfield, *Theory and Problems of Social Psychology* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948), pp. 404-440.

⁴ See especially Henry Steele Commager, *Living Ideas in America* (New York: Harper

of the individual are recognized and respected. (2) Cooperative means are utilized in solving problems of living, thus giving the individual the opportunity to participate in an ever widening range of groups. (3) Reason and intelligence are relied upon in solving problems in all aspects of life. (4) Man's ability to improve living conditions is restricted only by the extent to which the individual is given opportunity to use his full powers in creative and constructive ways.

RESPECT FOR THE INDIVIDUAL. "In a democracy, the primary purpose of all action is the welfare of each individual."⁵ Each person, regardless of race, color, religion, economic status, or national origin, is considered equal before the law and entitled to equal rights, liberties, privileges, opportunities, and responsibilities. In a sense the whole history of Western civilization is the story of the struggle to perfect this idea and apply it in daily living. The Sermon on the Mount, the Magna Charta, the Declaration of Independence, and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights are all noble expressions of the concept. The individual is important and must be considered. He is worthy of respect and capable of accepting responsibility for making decisions concerning his own future.

COOPERATIVE METHODS OF WORK. A second basic idea of the democratic way of life is that man is able and willing to use cooperation in the solution of problems. Ashley Montagu has documented, for popular consumption, the supreme importance of cooperation among all forms of life.⁶ While admitting the importance of competition and struggle in biological survival, Montagu cites numerous studies which indicate that cooperation is the more dominant motive among living organisms. Even one-celled animals evidence mutual cooperation for survival; and higher forms of life, especially man, have developed cooperative means for providing many necessary services in addition to real survival needs.⁷ Democracy rests on the assumption that men can work together to solve their problems—with the realization, of course, that some individuals are more able than others. Each person has an opportunity to influence others and, ideally, he continually expands the areas of his influence. "Working together for good" is the essence of democratic action.

RELIANCE UPON REASON. Through most of man's history, appeals other & Brothers, 1951); and George S. Counts, *Education and American Civilization* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952). For a thumbnail sketch of basic ideas, see Ordway Tead, *The Art of Administration* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951), pp. 75-78.

⁵ Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1940), p. 18.

⁶ Ashley Montagu, *On Being Human* (New York: Henry Schuman, Inc., Publishers, 1950).

⁷ See also Earl C. Kelley and Marie I. Rasey, *Education and the Nature of Man* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952), pp. 27-30.

than rational ones have been relied upon to solve problems of living. The medicine men mumbled magic words over ceremonial trinkets, the witch brewed a potion from herbs, or the individual rubbed his rabbit's foot. Although man has used his intelligence to find solutions to many problems down through the ages, only recently has he begun to apply reason in solving problems in all aspects of living. Appeals to tradition, pride, fear, and personal gain still have tremendous vitality and, in some areas of living, are probably dominant. Democracy rests on the assumption, however, that man is a reasoning being—a creature capable of and willing to use rational approaches as he faces problems. Two further assumptions are made; namely, that the common man has sufficient intelligence to participate in policy decisions and that the intelligence of all men should be freed—expert and novice alike—to devise new and better ways of achieving the noblest purposes of the group.

FAITH IN THE FUTURE. Democracy rests, finally, upon the assumption that men can and will continue to improve living conditions as democracy is practiced. As human beings are respected, as cooperative means are used, and as reason is applied in the solution of problems, the world will become a better place for all. This faith, so characteristic of life on the frontier in nineteenth-century America, still provides much of the motivation for social change. Parents want better opportunities for their children than they had. Almost all men yearn for peace. A vision of a better world has motivated each generation of Americans to unmatched accomplishments. It will continue to provide the drive needed to eliminate hunger, disease, prejudice, fear, and war from the world.

Leadership Must Be Democratic

To achieve such ends as those just discussed, democratic means must be used. Children of each generation must have experiences which will develop the attitudes, skills, and understandings essential to effective participation in political and social democracy. Much of the responsibility for providing such experiences is, of necessity, given to the schools in our culture. If schools are to provide children with opportunities to participate in democratic action, teachers must be convinced of the values of democracy and must support democratic ideals in the classroom. And if teachers are to provide a setting conducive to the development of democratic ideals, the status leader, the elementary school principal, must by his actions support such concepts. He must provide democratic leadership.

Schools do not necessarily support democratic ideals. Many instances could be cited from the history of the past fifty years to document the fact that schools may serve totalitarian causes as well as democratic ones. One author has clearly indicated the dilemma as follows:

We know today, if we have learned the lesson of the immediate past, that organized education may or may not serve the cause of human progress. In fact, we know that it may serve any cause, that it may serve tyranny as well as freedom, ignorance as well as enlightenment, falsehood as well as truth, war as well as peace, death as well as life. It may lead men and women to think they are free even as it rivets upon them the chains of bondage.⁸

The challenge facing the elementary school principal in today's world is to lead in a way that supports democratic ideals; to lead in a way that encourages each individual to accept responsibility in and with the group; and to lead in such a way that the creative talents of the individuals in the group are released and utilized.

Leadership Demands Maturity

Leadership of high quality is probably easier to write about than it is to provide, because a person's actions depend so largely upon his own conception of himself. Furthermore, situational factors are of tremendous importance in any act involving leadership. What works in one case may not necessarily work in another; what works at one time may not work at another.

It is possible, nevertheless, to indicate that maturity of the type described by the Overstreets⁹ enables a person to use his talents maximally and to enlist the effective cooperation of other members of the staff. Two other authors have expressed the idea as follows:

How one relates himself to things and to people, especially the latter, determines how successful one will be in the primary business of life. What we hold others to be in attitude, based upon all we have to bring to the relatedness, determines how well we will make out. What we see when another floats into our ken establishes the basis for what relation may occur. If a human being is to improve his success in making his way, it is precisely at this point that he must do it. The individual can do something about it himself through self-analysis. Those who work with others can best attack their problems at this point. That relatedness can be modified by self and others makes valid the hopes for a better world.¹⁰

The encouraging factor that pervades almost all the basic findings in psychology, psychiatry, and human dynamics, then, is that the individual is not helpless in terms of self-understanding.¹¹ Ability to look at oneself

⁸ Counts, *op. cit.*, p. 29.

⁹ See Harry A. Overstreet, *The Mature Mind* (New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1949); *The Great Enterprise* (New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1952); and Helen Bonaro (Overstreet), *Understanding Fear in Ourselves and Others* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949).

¹⁰ Kelley and Rasey, *op. cit.*, p. 50.

¹¹ Another volume which describes help the school can give is Arthur T. Jersild, *In Search of Self* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952).

—to take stock so to speak—and to begin to construct a self-image which is more mature is not only desirable but distinctly possible. But the difficulty lies

. . . in the fact that most of us are unconscious of having a self-image and of the possibility that there may be a discrepancy between what we are and what we think we are. We intimately feel ourselves to be a certain sort of person; and this feeling constitutes for us such strong evidence that we *are* that kind of person that even contradictory behaviors on our own part seem to us mere surface affairs.¹²

Overstreet suggests three simple yet profound steps which the individual can take in attempting to develop a more mature self. (1) Realize that every situation in life offers opportunity for either mature or immature responses. (2) Associate himself with groups that promote maturity. (3) Contrive a plan for the growth of the mind that has breadth and depth and continuity.¹³

It seems obvious that effective democratic leadership will become more common as persons in positions of leadership develop greater understanding of themselves as persons and of themselves in relation to others. Certainly persons who are placed in positions of status leadership—elementary school principals, for instance—need to develop a self-image which permits responsible behavior toward others and an open-minded approach to problems.

DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP IS A PROCESS OF WORKING WITH PEOPLE

The democratic leader is interested in bringing people together so that they work effectively and happily to achieve agreed-upon goals. The leader does not tell, decide, coerce, order, drive, or force others to accept his will. Rather, the effective democratic leader *works with* a group, so that the group as a whole and individual members of the group become more able to solve problems efficiently and effectively. What does the good leader do as he works with a group?

A Leader Releases the Talents of Individuals

A democratic leader works with a group in such a way as to release the talents of individual members of the group. The leader recognizes the latent power which exists in the group, and he creates situations which permit and encourage the development of this power. The leader knows that some members of the group have more ability, more creativeness, more skill to bring to specific group endeavors than others; moreover, he

¹² Overstreet, *The Great Enterprise*, pp. 42-43.

¹³ Overstreet, *The Mature Mind*, pp. 273-292.

recognizes that some members may have more of some of these qualities than he. He also knows that creativeness and skill will not be applied in solving problems unless there is an atmosphere which permits and encourages freedom of thought, cooperative action, and reliance upon reason.

The effective leader knows that individuals mirror the social climate of the group in which they find themselves and that a democratic climate has to be deliberately created in most groups.¹⁴ Consequently, the leader has responsibility for developing conditions which release the talents of individuals. Reluctance to accept responsibility for leadership tends to result in anarchy and chaos. *The democratic leader must lead.*

In working with groups which have become used to autocracy, it is usually necessary for the leader initially to help the group establish controls over influences detrimental to effective democratic action.¹⁵ Thus, at the outset, the leader frequently may have to accept a role which has authoritarian aspects in it. But here is the danger—the trap. Democratic ends cannot be achieved by autocratic means. In honest zeal to develop fine schools, many principals have drowned in authoritarian wells while professing to believe in and to support sound leadership principles.

From the outset, in working with a staff that has been accustomed to dictation, the leader should respond in a constructive manner to all comments made by group members. In this way, a permissive climate is established. The leader should proceed on the assumption that all members of the group are tolerant, cooperative, and considerate. In most instances, subsequent events will prove the soundness of the assumption. He must *not* impose his goals on the group. Freedom of action and freedom of choice must be jealously supported, so that the talents of the individuals comprising the group will be released and will function to the benefit of the total enterprise.

A Leader Helps the Group Define Its Goals

A democratic leader works with a group in such a way as to focus the group's attention on the goals it wants to reach, with the result that group solidarity and cohesiveness develop. He knows that effective group action results from attacking problems which are real to the group. He therefore deliberately creates situations which help the group define and solve its

¹⁴ See Kurt Lewin, *Resolving Social Conflicts* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1948), Chaps. 2, 4, and 5.

¹⁵ Many schools unfortunately evidence the characteristics described by Willard Waller, *The Sociology of Teaching* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1932), p. 10. He describes the school as "a despotism in a state of perilous equilibrium . . . threatened from within and exposed to regulations and interference from without."

problems. Mackenzie and Corey have identified four ways of exercising leadership: (1) force, (2) bargaining, (3) paternalism, and (4) determination of mutually acceptable goals and means.¹⁶ They admit the difficulty of achieving the fourth way of exercising leadership, indicating that "the process appears to necessitate a climate in which status leaders and teachers can work together with mutual trust, in a spirit of free inquiry."¹⁷

While not attempting to prescribe the manner in which the elementary school principal should proceed in helping the group define its goals, the following suggestions may be helpful.

1. A CLEAR DEFINITION OF THE PROBLEM IS NEEDED. Usually problems suggested by staff members are clusters of problems rather than single, specific ones. Teachers in the upper grades, for instance, may suggest that the reading program needs to be improved. The total staff may express considerable agreement and interest in attacking this problem. The leader can and should help the staff see at the outset that improving reading instruction includes problems such as

- improving library resources,
- using more effectively the books and magazines already available,
- getting more information about individual children,
- devising ways of differentiating instruction,
- writing original materials for particular children,
- extending the use of experience charts,
- teaching word-attack skills more successfully,
- developing interest in learning to read and in reading for fun and pleasure,
- providing new experiences for children, and
- overcoming emotional blocks to learning.

Achieving agreement at this stage of group planning will help considerably later on.

2. ONCE THE PROBLEM IS CLEARLY DEFINED, PROCESSES FOR ATTACKING IT NEED TO BE AGREED UPON. Usually, if effective work is to be done, subgroups will have to be formed to attack certain aspects of the problem, especially if the faculty is large. Thelen's principle of "least group size" is applicable in such instances. He says that "the size of the group should be the smallest group in which it is possible to have represented at a

¹⁶ Gordon N. Mackenzie, Stephen M. Corey, and Associates, *Instructional Leadership* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954), pp. 23-30.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 30.

functional level all the socialization and achievement skills required for the particular activity."¹⁸ The size of the groups maintained depends upon the activity or function to be performed and the skills of individual members. For some tasks, such as practicing individual skills, a group of two is probably ideal; but, for creative thinking, such as is hoped for as elementary school faculties attack their problems, groups of from four to eight persons probably are best. The entire staff, of course, will need to perform necessary administrative tasks. As groups begin work, they need to define for themselves *what* they are to do, *how* it is to be done, and *who* will undertake specific jobs.

3. THE VALUE OF THE "OUTSIDER" NEEDS TO BE RECOGNIZED. In many instances, staffs receive stimulation and help in clarifying their problems through the use of consultants. If the consultant considers himself a catalytic agent or a questioner rather than "an expert with the answers," the chances that the group will profit from the outsider's participation are increased immeasurably.

4. THE PHYSICAL SETTING WITHIN WHICH GROUP WORK TAKES PLACE EITHER CONTRIBUTES TO THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE PROCEDURE OR MAKES GROUP EFFORT DIFFICULT. Experience has demonstrated the superiority of face-to-face arrangements for group effort, with each member of the group able to see every other participant. When large groups break into subgroups, sufficient space should be provided, so that all participants can hear members of their own group and not be distracted by the discussion of others.¹⁹

A Leader Respects Individuality Yet Develops Consensus

Democratic leaders work with a group in such a way as to respect the individuality of members in the group, cherishing their divergent opinions, yet developing consensus. Anyone who has occupied a parked automobile on "Main Street" and has observed people as they pass knows that people differ. Although leaders know that each individual is unique, they frequently make attempts to achieve a great measure of conformity. The challenge of leadership is not that of welcoming people with very different personalities to a group and then submerging their individual differences, so that they become dull and uninteresting. Rather, the challenge of leadership is to work with a group in such ways that the personalities of the individuals are respected and enhanced while, at the same time, agreements which permit effective group endeavor are reached.

¹⁸ Herbert Thelen, "Group Dynamics in Instruction: Principle of Least Group Size," *School Review*, 57:139-148 (March), 1949.

¹⁹ See George B. de Huszar, *Practical Applications of Democracy* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1945).

The elementary school principal may find that his professional staff members hold divergent views on the nature of good teaching. One teacher may have a reputation for excellence in the community because "she makes 'em toe the line." She may believe that good education for children consists of keeping them quiet, in their seats, and working. Another staff member may believe that, in order to achieve individual and group goals, children should share in planning classroom activities, participate in group work during a considerable portion of the school day, and feel free to move around the classroom when necessary. Such conflicting points of view are frequently represented among the members of an elementary school faculty.

No simple solution exists for conflicting situations which involve both human relations and philosophical positions. The good elementary school principal must realize at the outset, when he is confronted with widely different conceptions of good teaching, that his task is made more difficult because he supports a position himself. As a leader, his role is to provide opportunities for desirable interaction among teachers. His job is to help teachers find common ground upon which they may begin building respect for each other and to remind staff members that, because teaching is a complex undertaking, more than one way of approaching the task is possible.

The principal new to a job will discover it is sound practice to steer the group to attack, initially, specific problems which are not emotionally controversial. The role of the educational leader in tense situations which tend to result in personal antagonisms, then, is to help the individuals involved find common ground—a basis upon which respect for the various positions may flourish—and to attempt to bring about a greater measure of responsible participation in decision making. The leader must work with the group in such a way as to respect the individuality of members of the group; yet, out of the differences, a measure of agreement must be found—agreement which will serve as a common basis for action. Usually agreement can be reached most easily on goals; conflicts more frequently concern *means* for achieving desired objectives. It is frequently judicious, therefore, for the leader to focus the attention of individuals enmeshed in controversy on the ends sought, so that all may see that substantial agreement already exists. The leader must be careful, at least early in his work with a staff, not to support a position in totality himself. As the group gets to know him and his way of working, he probably can state his own point of view more definitely without being misunderstood. To respect the individuality of all teachers so that, gradually, a philosophy of education which supports democratic values will be implemented in the school—this is one of the intriguing tasks facing elementary school principals.

It may be desirable to point out that consensus (which *Webster's* defines as "agreement in matters of opinion") is the ideal toward which all group leaders strive. True consensus probably is rarely achieved in any group—and perhaps desirably so—yet, some measure of agreement is necessary if an elementary school is to function as a unit. Many principals, unfortunately, seem to strive only for sufficient agreement so that the principle of majority rule will provide a basis for action. It is true that, in numerous instances, action will undoubtedly have to be taken which is based upon a substantial measure of agreement (a majority) rather than upon consensus. Leaders would do well to remember, however, that most bills passed in Congress by majority vote have been previously subjected to close scrutiny in committee sessions in order to develop consensus. As a result of such deliberation, a better end product is usually developed. A general principle might be stated: *Strive always for consensus—for total agreement—and utilize the ideas of all in achieving agreement, but use majority opinion as the basis for necessary action.* The ideas and opinions of those who disagree with the majority should, of course, always be respected—and such persons should feel free to vote against any action which they feel is not wise. (See also the discussion on harmonizing differences and resolving conflicts in Chapter 4, pages 78–81.)

A Leader Develops Respect for Evidence

Democratic leaders work with a group in such a way as to develop respect for evidence. As Elliott has so aptly stated the problem, "To pool the suggestions of the ignorant does not result in a reliable and intelligible decision."²⁰ Groups frequently do not have the information they need in order to discuss a problem. Certainly one of the functions of the good leader is to help group members develop awareness of their lack of information and willingness to get the needed data. Groups which are improving in effectiveness recognize the need for additional information and develop better sources of accurate data.

Faculties which are learning to secure additional evidence draw upon many sources. Some helpful information may be found in the personal experiences of group members. Frequently, the experiences of others as recorded in professional textbooks and magazines may be used. Some individuals in the group may be able to obtain needed information through visitations or observation. Competent persons who are not members of the group, but who are familiar with the problem being considered, may be invited to bring data to the group. Recordings, filmstrips, motion pic-

²⁰ Harrison S. Elliott, *The Process of Group Thinking* (New York: Association Press, 1938), p. 130.

tures, and other audio-visual aids may be utilized by the group. Careful evaluation of present practices by the individuals affected is a promising source of pertinent information.

Accurate data about many problems can be secured; but regardless of the techniques used to secure additional information, all groups will discover that there are gaps in what is known. As Elliott has stated,

The truth is that, with the limitations of this world, no question was ever decided on complete information. With due recognition of the importance of securing as adequate information as possible, the decisions of life are made with as reliable information as can be secured under the circumstances. We must not deceive ourselves by believing that we ever act on complete knowledge and understanding of the facts.²¹

The elementary school principal, then, has the responsibility for helping staff members obtain as accurate, complete, recent, and reliable information as is humanly possible. He should help them devise ways of obtaining data which are not readily available, data concerning local schools, the children who are being taught, and the community in which the children live. Furthermore the principal should help all members of the staff and, when appropriate, citizens of the community to consider the evidence before making decisions. He should strive to develop reliance upon available evidence, and he should encourage the establishment of action-research techniques in obtaining needed data.²² Groups which respect evidence and make sincere attempts to secure additional accurate data concerning problems result from good leadership.

A Leader Demonstrates Teaching Effectiveness

The democratic leader works with a group in such a way as to demonstrate that he is an effective teacher. By his actions he supports practices based on sound principles of teaching and learning.²³ The principal himself, therefore, needs to understand and accept defensible objectives of education. He needs to formulate, with the staff members as participants, the goals to be achieved as they work and learn. He needs to help provide learning experiences which will establish patterns of behavior consistent with accepted goals. At all times, the principal needs to be concerned with the human relations established among staff members and, simultaneously,

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 130.

²² Stephen M. Corey, *Action Research to Improve School Practices* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953).

²³ See, for example, National Society for the Study of Education, *Learning and Instruction* (Forty-ninth Yearbook; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), Part I, pp. 337-338.

to be interested in the welfare of the individual teacher. He needs, also, to help the staff develop expertness in evaluating the total program of the school.

Leaders, in other words, have responsibilities as educators. The elementary school principal, as a status leader, has responsibilities for helping those with whom he works—teachers, parents, pupils, and community members generally—to become increasingly adept at making intelligent choices. He has educational responsibilities—teaching responsibilities—as surely as the classroom teacher has such commitments.

Pigors has described the leader's responsibilities as a teacher in the following:

Regard for the growth of individuals who are temporarily in a dependent position is a significant criterion to distinguish the leader from the dominator. The leader is always preparing for the time when the follower may become independent. At his best, *as exemplified by the ideal educator*, [italics added] the leader aims to make himself unnecessary. In this sense it has been well said that the leader exists so that there may be better leaders.²⁴

Good leaders, good elementary school principals, demonstrate their effectiveness as teachers as they work with individuals and groups.

A Leader Demonstrates Faith in People

The democratic leader works with a group in such a way as to demonstrate faith in people. The leader *knows* and is able to interpret for others the deep-seated wishes of the group. He is a representative of the group's value goals.

The elementary school principal, as a status leader striving to become the accepted group leader, needs to have faith in the staff with which he is working. He should feel that the teachers wish to become better teachers or can be stimulated to desire to improve. His every action should indicate to the group members that he believes they have such deep-seated yearnings. The principal, moreover, should have faith in the intelligence of the group—faith that sufficient brain power exists in the group, if it can be effectively released and challenged, to make sound judgments concerning educational problems. The principal needs also to demonstrate by his actions that he believes in the ability of people to work together cooperatively and humanely. He knows and should help the staff learn that groups can accomplish their goals—can achieve satisfaction through effective utilization of their abilities.

The good elementary school principal needs to demonstrate such faith in the face of odds which are sometimes a bit discouraging. He has to

²⁴ Pigors, *op. cit.*, p. 83.

work with a long-term perspective, building sound human relations based upon respect for personality. The principal needs to know that faith in people is not misplaced, even though the staff may never achieve the level of competence for which he yearns. As vacancies occur in the staff, effort should be made to select new persons who possess the skills, understandings, and attitudes needed for effective participation in group endeavors. Over a period of years, working *with* a staff and adding to a staff, a principal can bring about changes which will demonstrate that having faith in people pays real dividends.

QUALITIES POSSESSED BY GOOD LEADERS

Many studies have been made concerning the qualities or characteristics possessed by good leaders. Numerous lists are available elsewhere to convince practicing or prospective elementary school principals that good leaders are almost supermen who display qualities such as high intelligence, superior scholarship, enthusiasm, friendliness, affection for people, an abundance of vitality and nervous energy, and a good sense of humor.²⁵ While it is undoubtedly true that effective leaders do possess many, if not most, of these qualities, it is also quite true that, initially, the identified leaders started humbly and built upon the strengths which they possessed.

Persons who find themselves in positions of leadership, such as the elementary school principalship, should be interested in utilizing more effectively the qualities they already possess. They should also strive, over a period of years, to develop additional strengths. Most of the qualities which effective leaders possess result from interest in the world and the people who inhabit it. These qualities are, in essence, the marks of a mature person. Certainly elementary school principals should establish for themselves patterns of living which will continually support basic human values and lead to sound emotional growth and intellectual vitality.

PRINCIPLES FOR PRINCIPALS

Preceding sections of this chapter have presented material on the nature of leadership and on the qualities possessed by good leaders. Reference was made to the elementary school principal as a status leader who is attempting to become the recognized and accepted leader of the faculty and the school community. The discussions implied that the elementary school principal is in a key position to influence the future of mankind. One writer has described the sphere of his influence as follows:

²⁵ Students especially interested in this topic will want to see Zeleny, "Leadership," in Monroe, ed., *op. cit.*, pp. 662-668; and Tead, *The Art of Leadership*, Chap. 6.

A school is more than a pile of bricks, steel, and mortar, no matter how elaborately it may be furnished. A school is a living, breathing, growing thing, drawing life and feeling from human beings—teachers and pupils—living, working, and growing together, gaining inspiration from obstacles overcome, and learning daily the truth of the proposition that life is a succession of triumphs.

More than any other person, the principal sets the tone of this living, growing, feeling thing—the school. Just as the architect and engineer design the brick and mortar shell which clothes the school, so the principal, drawing upon the ideals and aspirations of teachers, boys and girls, parents, and community, envisions the spiritual outlines of the school and cultivates its growth from day to day. Leader of teachers, and vicarious teacher of every child, the principal has the most delicate and exacting job in the whole system of schools. In the span of a single lifetime no other personality touches directly so many human lives. Thus the principal's life achieves a kind of immortality spreading its influence down the years in ever-widening circles.²⁶

There is little doubt that the elementary school principalship is a position of leadership and, moreover, that it is an important position. (See Chapter 2 for historical treatment of the principalship.) If man is to solve his problems in the coming generations by peaceful and rational means, the ideals, attitudes, understandings, and skills equal to the task must be developed in the young. Whether we like it or not, the principal determines to a considerable extent the attitudes learned at school. By his leadership, he sets the "feeling tone" or emotional climate which the school provides. The principal has to furnish leadership in several different areas of responsibility. Among these are

- leadership of the school staff,
- leadership in curriculum development,
- leadership in developing effective school organization,
- leadership in improving guidance policies and techniques,
- leadership in relating special services and activities to the instructional program,
- leadership in managing the school plant and instructional facilities, and
- leadership in the community and the profession.

As he attempts to furnish leadership in all these areas, the elementary school principal needs to be guided by leadership principles which have been tested in human experience and found to be good. He needs to provide leadership which supports what is known about how people learn and about how groups function most effectively. He needs to support values which have been and are the foundation stones of American life—values such as respect for personality, willingness to use cooperative

²⁶ Worth McClure, in Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow* (Twenty-seventh Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948), p. 263.

means, reliance upon reason, and faith in people. He needs to *work*—to work *hard*—to help teachers and parents and pupils create a setting in which children may learn and learn well the skills, attitudes, understandings, and values essential for the survival and progressive improvement of democratic government and society.

The effective elementary school principal, then, will be a person who supports basic principles. The following twenty-five principles, which seem to the authors basic, are presented as a summary of this first chapter and as a preview to the rest of the volume. As succeeding chapters consider the different areas in which the principal must provide leadership if a good school is to result, these principles will be either openly restated or tacitly implied. They provide, in a sense, a credo—an underlying philosophy or foundation—which should serve to guide the principal as he goes about his daily tasks. The effective application of such principles will result in better schools for children and, ultimately, in a better world.

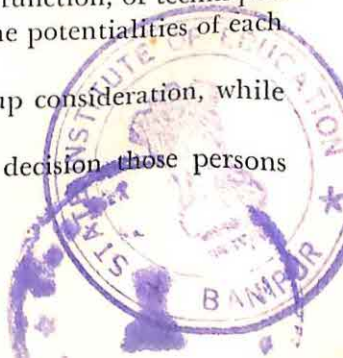
THE EFFECTIVE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

1. Develops sound human relations with and among members of his staff, parents, and pupils.
2. Stimulates each of his co-workers to catch a vision of a personal potential not previously perceived.
3. Helps the group raise its "sights" concerning what can be accomplished.
4. Releases, develops, and uses the talents of the total staff.
5. Recognizes that high morale is an important factor in good working situations and provides a permissive yet stimulating environment for all.
6. Uses the basic concerns of the group as the beginning point for study and action.
7. Helps the group decide which problems are of greater and lesser significance.
8. Provides assistance as the group decides how to attack the problems.
9. Makes sure that solutions are not approved until the evidence needed for sound judgment is available and has been considered.
10. Contributes suggestions as a member of the group.
11. Helps individual staff members become better able to discuss issues in such a manner that divergent opinions are not merely tolerated, but carefully considered as perhaps preferable to accepted majority opinion.
12. Uses skillfully his knowledge of how groups function, of techniques for improving the effectiveness of groups, and of the potentialities of each group member.
13. Recognizes that some problems require group consideration, while others may best be handled in other ways.
14. Involves in the deliberations leading to a decision those persons

13.10.93

7513

955



(or their representatives) who are likely to be affected by the decision.

15. Makes sure that the actions implied by group decisions are subsequently taken.

16. Builds acceptance within the group that decisions once made are not irrevocable—that frequent review of the consequences of decisions is desirable.

17. Relates his actions to the community served, taking into account the power structure, socioeconomic conditions, geographic factors, mores, and traditions.

18. Bases his actions upon what is known concerning the nature of human development and learning.

19. Handles administrative details expeditiously.

20. Acts decisively yet always humanely when situations demand action.

21. Develops the leadership potential in others.

22. Maintains constant faith in people and their ability to improve.

23. Brings all elements of the educational enterprise to focus upon educating the individual child.

24. Builds understanding of the responsibilities of democratic leadership to the individual and of the individual to democratic leadership.

25. Recognizes that growth in the people served is the final test of leadership.

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDY

1. One elementary school teacher in a school of twelve teachers aspires to become the new principal. She openly asserts that she recognizes her leadership limitations and that she has never thought of herself as a person of unusual ability. Despite her own minimizing of her abilities, this teacher has long been recognized as an outstanding person with wide interests and superior ability. If you were the superintendent, would you recommend her to the board of education as the new principal? Would you want further information? What conception of herself do you think this teacher holds? Does one's conception of himself have any direct bearing on his leadership potential?

2. At a meeting of a state elementary school principals' association, a challenging speaker stated that leadership is a process of influencing others to do what you want done. What consequences might be envisioned if this concept is applied throughout the state by the principals who attended the meeting?

3. Miss Rogers, who has taught in Abraham Lincoln Elementary School for twenty years, applied for the principalship when a vacancy occurred. Another woman who was teaching in an adjoining neighborhood of the same city was, nevertheless, appointed to the position. Miss Rogers likes the new principal and wants to be as helpful as possible. She gets in the habit of dropping by the office

several times a day with suggestions and, at times, tends to monopolize faculty meetings. If you were the new principal what would you do? Do your plans violate the principles of leadership enumerated on pages 21-22?

4. Mrs. Smiley, a teacher with fifteen years of experience in Cornersville Elementary School, became incensed when the school board appointed a young, male high school teacher as principal of the school. She was openly critical of the action. Assume that you are the new principal. What would you strive to do with the staff during the first three months of the school year?

5. Mr. Cheney, who has been a very successful principal in a high socioeconomic neighborhood of Central City, is asked by his superintendent to move to a new school constructed in the part of the city which has a reputation for being tough. The staff, for the most part, has taught in the neighborhood, but in an old building which was disreputable because of constant vandalism. What ways of working may Mr. Cheney have to modify as he undertakes his new job?

6. Think of a situation you have experienced which illustrates leadership opportunities and analyze it in terms of the principles enumerated in this chapter.

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

- Cartwright, Dorwin, and Alvin Zander, ed., *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory*. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson & Co., 1953.
- Chase, Stuart, *The Proper Study of Mankind*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1948.
- Counts, George S., *Education and American Civilization*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952.
- Gouldner, Alvin W., ed., *Studies in Leadership*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950.
- Haiman, Franklyn S., *Group Leadership and Democratic Action*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951.
- Koopman, G. R., Alice Miel, and Paul J. Misner, *Democracy in School Administration*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1943.
- Lewin, Kurt, *Resolving Social Conflicts*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1948.
- Miller, Van, ed., *National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, Providing and Improving Administrative Leadership for America's Schools*. Fourth Report; New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951.
- Miller, Ward I., *Democracy in Educational Administration*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942.
- Pigors, Paul, *Leadership or Domination*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935.
- Tead, Ordway, *The Art of Administration*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951.
- , *The Art of Leadership*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1935.
- Yauch, Wilbur A., *Improving Human Relations in School Administration*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949.

The Development of the Elementary School Principalship

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP as a significant educational position is a relatively recent development. The high school principalship was apparently the first American leadership position, followed by the superintendency and the principalship in the elementary school. Education of children in colonial times was insufficiently extensive in scope to necessitate administrative responsibility. Furthermore, schools for children were often organized around ungraded units which emphasized reading or writing. No definite date can be established for the emergence of the principalship, but evidently by around 1800 responsibilities began to be centralized to some extent. Early reports of school systems contained references to the "headmaster," "head teacher," or "principal teacher." These early "principals" represented an administrative convenience rather than positions of recognized leadership. Maintenance of discipline, administration of plant, regulation of classes, classification of pupils, and establishment of rules and regulations were the primary duties of these principals. An early report from the Cincinnati public schools summarizes the major duties of elementary school principals.

The principal teacher was: (1) to function as the head of the school charged to his care; (2) to regulate the classes and courses of instruction of all pupils, whether they occupied his room or the rooms of other teachers; (3) to discover any defects in the school and apply remedies; (4) to make defects known to the visitors or trustees of ward, or district, if he were unable to remedy conditions; (5) to give necessary instruction to his assistants; (6) to classify pupils; (7) to safeguard school houses and furniture; (8) to keep the school clean; (9) to instruct assistants; (10) to

refrain from impairing the standing of assistants, especially in the eyes of their pupils; (11) to require the cooperation of his assistants.¹

These duties of elementary school principals in Cincinnati are undoubtedly typical of duties of principals in other cities in the middle of the nineteenth century. In the evolution of the principal's duties, it is clear that this stage represented primarily one of limited administrative authority and management. Any concept of supervisory responsibility for instruction, of leadership of the teaching staff, or of professional stimulation and coordination was absent and evidently not considered important.

The second half of the nineteenth century witnessed considerable advances in both status and responsibilities of elementary school principals. One of these advances was an increasing trend toward releasing principals from teaching duties. Few school systems considered the position sufficiently important for full-time release from teaching, but many did provide substitute teachers or rely on other means to give the principal time away from his classes. This release from some teaching duties showed the growing importance of the position, even though major emphasis was still placed on administrative routines. There are, however, evidences of recognition of the expansion of responsibilities in some city school systems during this period. Principals were given greater responsibility for management of plant and grounds, classification and control of pupils, authority over teachers, assignments of teachers to various types of duties, and inspection to determine conformity to requirements relative to the curriculum and teaching.

The advent of the graded school system during the second half of the nineteenth century likewise hastened the development of the principalship. Undoubtedly the influx of larger and larger numbers of pupils, the consequent difficulty in classifying these pupils due to great variations in age and levels of accomplishment, and the accompanying need for adapting instructional facilities and equipment motivated principals to work for and develop the graded system. But the emergence of this system also accelerated the evolution of the principalship in hundreds of urban systems and, gradually, in county and rural school systems as well.

Further evidence of the expanding nature of the principalship was the gradual provision of services to principals. Regular custodial service and clerical help increased his supervisory duties and permitted him to attend to other school duties. Central offices of larger school systems gradually provided many additional services, such as courses of study, instructional

¹ Paul B. Jacobson, William C. Reavis, and James D. Logsdon, *Duties of School Principals* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950), pp. 730-731. Adapted from *Tenth Annual Report of the Common Schools of Cincinnati* (1839). Reprinted by permission of Prentice-Hall, Inc.

materials and supplies, and general or special supervisory assistance. By 1900, the principal's duties had expanded sufficiently and, correspondingly, services had been provided, so that the position was widely recognized. It is true that this position was still primarily administrative in nature and that only the larger systems had full-time principals. Nevertheless, the position was well established by 1900 and was to witness phenomenal growth during the twentieth century.

The position of elementary school principal is now at the point of becoming recognized unquestionably as a leadership responsibility. The struggle up to this century was for simple recognition that the need for the position existed and that local school systems should establish such positions. With the general recognition of the position, the principal during this century has come to the forefront of educational change. He has been concerned with the testing movement, the refinement of the graded system as well as attempts to eliminate its excesses, efforts at more satisfactory methods of grouping pupils, experimentation with new types of school organization, extensive curriculum experimentation, and greater emphasis on understanding children. Educational literature relating to the principalship has emerged during this century, and professional organizations have shown increasing interest in rendering assistance. The principal is now a vital force in ascertaining what kinds of experiences boys and girls should have in their early years and, more than any other single person, he determines the quality of living in elementary schools. The most decisive influence on the climate of opinion and general tone of the school is the principal. His role in influencing the program for children is now of crucial importance.

SOME FACTORS AFFECTING DEVELOPMENT OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP

In the previous paragraphs a brief historical sketch of the evolution of the elementary school principalship disclosed how recent is the recognition given this position. Countless factors and conditions have, in the past, had great influence on the emergence and development of the principalship. Some of these factors and conditions have largely disappeared as significant factors in the present, but others have arisen. Inasmuch as the school is a social institution subjected to the same powerful influences as other institutions, it is obvious that the principalship will remain dynamic in nature. The following factors appear to be quite important in their previous and current impact on the principalship.

Ideals and Aspirations Motivating Elementary School Development

The principalship of the elementary school is intimately related to the goals implied in the establishment and development of universal educa-

tion. An institution so universally accepted and so close to people as is the elementary school will inevitably respond to and, in great measure, be a product of basic ideals and motivations of the people. During our history the elementary school has come to rest upon certain basic principles which today are guideposts of operation. These principles have evolved slowly at times, have been bitterly contested at other times, and must be rediscovered by each generation. The principles discussed below are now generally recognized as guides in developing elementary school programs. These principles also have greatly affected the direction of development of the elementary school principalship. The principal must exercise leadership in implementing these principles in programs for children.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IS BASED ON THE PRINCIPLE THAT HUMAN PERSONALITY IS SACRED AND THAT INDIVIDUALS ARE THE GREATEST RESOURCE OF A DEMOCRACY. This principle is fundamental to acceptance of the idea of universal elementary school education. Yet for decades there was great uncertainty and considerable opposition to the idea of educating *all* children. To many individuals in the colonial period and even well into the nineteenth century, education was a privilege of the few, not a right of all. Thus elementary schools for children of the poor in the early 1800's were often thought to be sufficient opportunity for those whose parents could not pay for education. This principle of the value of all individuals, however, gradually gained acceptance in the political sense during the nineteenth century and came to be translated into action in schools for all children. One of the challenges of leadership today is how this ideal may be translated into reality for children. Although a few people still are unwilling to accept this principle, the ideal of a universal elementary school is a direct expression of a social and political ideal of the American people, with attendant leadership implications.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IS A GREAT INVESTMENT IN THE DEMOCRATIC WAY OF LIFE. Along with accepting the worth, dignity, and importance of the individual, we have come to believe that the welfare of the group depends upon education of the individual. This principle implies that free men cannot remain free without the essential skills, attitudes, and knowledge that free men must possess. Interpretation of this principle in a different context has often resulted in development of schools for nationalistic purposes. Yet early in our history, such leaders as Washington, Jefferson, and others clearly saw that the exciting and challenging ideals of our Declaration of Independence and the Constitution could be permanent only through a "diffusion of knowledge," or the education of children toward the responsibilities of democracy.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PROVIDES MEANS FOR ALL CHILDREN TO SEEK GREATER OPPORTUNITIES. One of the persistent motivating forces of the American Experiment has been a conviction that our way of life offers to

all an opportunity for success and achievement—a point of view often expressed in economic terms. Parents have often visualized the school as a ladder of opportunity by which children may improve their social and economic status. The school has in fact served this purpose throughout our history, and still serves as a great medium for equalizing opportunities for children. The elementary school affords opportunities to children that otherwise would not be available and is a social expression of a fundamental principle of our way of life. The principalship has been greatly influenced by this basic goal of the elementary school. The leadership role of the principal has gradually evolved into a social as well as educational responsibility, with a consequent need for leadership oriented around the aspirations of the people served.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IS A MEANS WHEREBY DEMOCRACY MAY REMAIN EXPERIMENTAL, DYNAMIC, AND VIGOROUS. The American Experiment in democratic living has never been viewed by the people as complete, static, or perfect. One of the driving forces has always been a conviction that the welfare of the individual and of the group is subject to experimentation, reorientation, and improvement. Any suggestion that our social order should become stratified or static has been vigorously opposed. The widening scope of social and political action by the American people in the past two centuries evidences acceptance of this outlook toward social change. In effect, American democracy may be characterized as a constant quest for better ways of meeting the needs of people, individually and in groups. In this setting the elementary school clearly has been considered one means of achieving this social purpose. The school became and continues to be an institution which assists in preventing stratification in society and which helps maintain a fluidity in movement of people. Thus, through its program of educational opportunities for all children, the elementary school makes possible this search for better ways of meeting group needs. The dynamic character of the American social order has obviously had direct impact on the principalship. As society changes, schools change, and thereby, the principalship. But even more important, a static concept of leadership is inappropriate; the principalship must constantly meet needs of a dynamic society through forward-looking leadership.

SCHOOLS ARE LOCALLY CONTROLLED AND ADMINISTERED. This principle has had very significant influence on the character, purposes, and program of the elementary school. Had a federal system of education been developed in our country, the elementary school would not now be the institution so close to the aspirations and hopes of all the people. In certain instances, of course, the school as a result of such local control has been forced, by legislative mandate, to adjust its program to expedencies of the moment. Yet the elementary school has been the unifying institu-

tion in thousands of communities and has received direct acclaim and loyalty from all the people. No other unit in the entire educational system, in fact, has responded so quickly to local needs, ideals, and hopes of the people. This guidepost has obviously had unusual influence on the development of the elementary school principalship. Absence of federal control of education and the delegation of administrative responsibility to the local district contributed greatly to the evolution of the principalship. The individual school has gradually emerged as the recognized unit for program development and administration. Further development of this principle will undoubtedly result in greater leadership responsibilities for the elementary school principal.

Such basic principles as those just discussed are illustrative of the broad guideposts by which the functions and services of elementary schools may be evaluated. Application of these principles has resulted in the creation of schools which are unique in many respects. As the school itself has evolved into the contemporary institution for the education of children, the principalship has likewise been greatly affected by its development. Application of these principles has, in fact, enhanced the position of the principal and has resulted in a demand for a type of educational leadership quite unlike that characterized by the "principal teacher" position. The elementary school principal is rapidly becoming a key person in developing, maintaining, and improving the educational opportunities envisioned in the basic educational and social goals of our society.

Advent of the Graded School

Another factor which greatly hastened the recognition of the elementary school principal was the emergence of the graded system. As long as small numbers of children were to be educated and as long as little specialization in instructional materials existed, a full-time principal was not necessary. When large numbers of children began to descend upon schools, some system of grouping had to be devised. Rough grouping by age and size had been practiced even in the earliest elementary schools. However, the concept of grouping by levels of attainment gradually gained ground during the nineteenth century, and was generally accepted during the second half of the century. As materials of instruction were prepared more and more in terms of assumed levels of difficulty, acceptance of the graded system was reinforced.

The advent of the graded system brought with it many educational changes which accelerated the demand for leadership of the principal. Assignment of children to grade levels became an important, if often perplexing, duty. In addition, each grade group had demands of its own for instructional materials, suitable equipment and furniture, records of

progress and achievement, and varied learning experiences. Perhaps the greatest need for leadership that the graded system demonstrated was the actual separation and grouping of children. One of the greatest potential dangers created was that each group could become practically an autonomous unit. In fact, many groups of children today have little relation to other groups, and teachers too often engage in their planning with little understanding of or concern for the program of the preceding or the succeeding year. The principal therefore becomes very important as a coordinator of vertical planning.

In many respects the advent of the graded system also stimulated the development of a particular kind of principal. This position, in the nineteenth century in particular, was greatly influenced and, in many ways, determined by the very nature of responsibilities the graded system demanded. One great challenge today is to free the principal from the limitations of graded systems and, in this way, develop more effective educational leadership.

The Changing Status of the Teacher of Children

Whether the leader is able to persuade others to higher accomplishment and recognition and thereby become outstanding or whether the situation itself brings out the latent qualities of leadership is a perennial argument. Thus it may be maintained that an educational position cannot become important without strong leadership; but also it may be contended that the position will not produce the educational leader unless the need for such leadership is clearly sensed. To a certain extent we may view the current position of the elementary school principal from these two vantage points. Undoubtedly, the leader of the elementary school has been influenced in both ways. It is the contention here, however, that a major factor influencing the principalship has been the increasingly important recognition accorded teachers of children by the educational profession itself and by the public at large.

This greater recognition of the elementary school teacher can be observed in a variety of circumstances. It is not even necessary to document the fact that the profession itself, until recent years, very largely looked upon teaching in the elementary school as an "elementary" position. Salary schedules tended to favor high school teachers, and community interest tended to center upon the secondary school. Now, however, most school systems have, or are moving toward, single salary schedules, and parents more and more regard their young children's teachers as important as any other teacher. It is not at all unusual today to hear teachers and parents express this changing attitude by asserting that the best teacher of all should teach the first grade.

It must be recognized, though, that the disparity between elementary and secondary schools has not been eliminated from all school systems. Yet positive leadership is being asserted in this direction. State departments of education, accrediting associations, parent groups, and voluntary professional organizations are contributing greatly to improving the position of the teacher of children.²

This changing status accorded teachers of children has clearly had direct results on the principal himself. He has, of course, contributed to the improved status; at the same time, his own position has been enhanced and valued more highly in the school system. Continuing improvement of the teacher's status will result also in continued growth in importance of the elementary school principal.

The current status of teacher and principal has undoubtedly been influenced markedly by the changing status of children. Essentially, the first kind of principal was employed to see that rigid standards of discipline were enforced, that rules were meticulously observed, and that teachers adhered to predetermined teaching methods and to defined teaching content. In the intervening decades great advances have been made in knowledge of child growth and development and in implications of this knowledge for the teaching and learning processes. No longer do we view the child as a miniature adult who must be forced to abide by adult behavior standards. Children are now properly viewed as persons with different standards and responsibilities, individual maturation patterns, and personal needs quite unlike those of adults. Gradually, too, we have learned that "normal" patterns of behavior, in reality, are only rough approximations—that each child has his own growth pattern. A school developed in accordance with what we now know about children requires greatly changed approaches to teaching and, consequently, to the role of the principal.

Changing Concepts of Professional Education for the Teacher

Another factor which has had great influence on the elementary school principalship is the program for professional education of teachers. As the role of the teacher has changed gradually through the years, certification changes have occurred also. A teacher who understands children, who can meet both individual and group needs, and who can develop an ap-

² Although numerous regional and national studies of youth education have been completed in this century, not until 1946 did any regional accrediting agency so concern itself with education in the elementary school. In that year, the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools initiated a regional study. See, for example, Cooperative Study in Elementary Education, *Promising Practices in Elementary Schools* (316 Peachtree St., N.E., Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1952).

propriate curriculum for children requires a broad general education as well as professional specialization. The general public recognition accorded teachers is inevitably reflected in provision for their professional education. At the same time, the standards of preparation established for prospective teachers affect their status.

In the early history of education in this country, little thought was given to the need for professional preparation. Ability to exercise discipline and reasonable competence in the basic skills were deemed sufficient to assure superior teaching. Not until the 1830's was an institution of higher learning established whose primary mission was the education of teachers. By modern standards most such institutions during the nineteenth century were little more than advanced high schools with a modicum of professional training. In fact, these normal schools, although they made great contributions to the professionalization of teaching, exerted an influence that tended to separate the education of elementary teachers from that of other educational personnel. Not until recently have universities and liberal arts colleges considered the admission of prospective elementary school teachers acceptable. Thus lower and greatly differentiated standards of preparation had their bearing on the development of educational programs for children.

Great advances have now been made toward preparation of elementary school teachers in accordance with newer conceptions of teaching and learning. While great emphasis in the past was placed on teaching from the point of view of a technician, the emphasis today is on the teacher as a truly professional person. Consequently, great concern is shown for educating the teacher in the humanities, natural sciences and social sciences, and health and physical well-being. The teacher, in other words, must be a student first if he is to be a successful teacher. Similarly, today's teachers of children are expected to understand human growth and development and to appreciate the unique role of the school in a democratic society. If the prospective teacher acquires competence in these areas as well as in developing the curriculum with children, he then becomes a professional person and not a narrowly trained technician.

Advancement of the level of preparation for elementary school teachers has been particularly rapid since 1945. Numerous professional groups have called attention to the need for improvement in both quantitative and qualitative standards. One regional group has proposed the following principles as guides to further advancement in the professional education of teachers of children:

1. The teacher education program should be the responsibility of the total faculty of the institution.
2. An adequate program of guidance is essential in a good program of pre-service teacher education.

3. General education is an integral part of the professional preparation of the elementary school teacher.
4. Professional education should begin in the freshman year of college, paralleling general education.
5. Every beginning elementary school teacher should demonstrate understanding and competence in: (1) human development and behavior; (2) the role of the school in a democratic society, and the influence of culture on children; (3) the nature of learning and how it takes place; (4) actual guidance of children in laboratory situations.
6. Prospective teachers should have experiences with children in the freshman year and in each succeeding year.
7. The prospective teacher should learn methods of teaching as he attends college classes and as he participates in the activities of children who are in the process of learning.
8. Programs should be kept flexible enough to provide for individual interests and needs.
9. In organizing the schedule, blocks of time of varying lengths should be provided.
10. Prospective teachers should be provided experiences which help them deepen their understanding of democracy.
11. Ways of providing continuous critical evaluation of the program should be created.³

Programs developed in line with these principles have moved far from the kinds of programs developed in normal schools and have contributed markedly toward elevating the status of elementary school teachers. Such programs also have pointed the way toward real professionalization of teaching in elementary schools and thereby of the principalship itself. Accelerated development of such programs has been effected through the translation of guidance principles into certification requirements in a majority of states. The following summaries of certification requirements in two states illustrate this trend:

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE GRADUATE CERTIFICATE FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN FLORIDA

1. Degree based on four years of work from a standard institution		
2. General preparation		45 semester hours
Arts of communication	6-12	
Human adjustment	6-12	
Biological and physical science	6-12	
The social studies	6-12	
Humanities and applied arts	6-12	

³ Cooperative Study in Elementary Education, *Education of Elementary School Personnel* (Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1951), pp. 15-17.

3. Professional preparation

A. Semester hours distributed as follows:	14
Foundations of education	6
Teaching in the elementary school	6
Special methods	2
B. Practical experiences—semester hours:	
Observation and practice teaching	6
C. Special education—semester hours	27
Introduction to materials for use with children	2
Exploring the child's physical environment	2
Exploring the child's social and economic environment	2
Exploring the child's personal-social environment	6
Creative arts and materials for use with children	6

Source: Robert C. Woellner and M. Aurilla Wood, *Requirements for Certification* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955), p. 24.

CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS FOR ELEMENTARY
SCHOOL TEACHERS IN UTAH

Completion of standard college course of four years

Academic requirements in quarter hours as follows:

Social science	10
Physical science	10
Biological science	10
Language arts	10
Music and fine arts and/or practical arts	6

Professional requirements in quarter hours as follows:

Physical and psychological foundations, including	9
School health education	3
Social and educational foundations	6
Elementary school curriculum and methods	12
Student teaching in elementary schools	12
(Courses in elementary education must total 30 quarter hours)	

Source: Woellner and Wood, *Requirements for Certification*, p. 108.

These trends in professional education of elementary school teachers demonstrate clearly a conception of teaching different from that most prevalent a few decades ago. As teachers are educated for professional responsibilities, obviously the role of the principal is vitally affected. The principal is enabled and, in fact, required to move from inspection, as a function of leadership, to coordination and stimulation of continued professional growth. An opportunity is therefore presented for the principal

to advance beyond the mechanical and housekeeping level to that of educational statesmanship.

Changing Concepts of Curriculum Development and Instructional Improvement

Increasing professionalization of teaching has accelerated the trend toward reassessment of curriculum improvement programs. Formerly, it was thought that producing courses of study, issuing curriculum directives, and devising "new" curriculum programs would automatically lead to improved instruction. Years of experience by curriculum workers as well as the results of research and experimentation have led to the conclusion that curriculum improvement programs must center upon the classroom teacher. "Curriculum change occurs only if there is teacher change" has come to be accepted as a sound and valid guidepost for curriculum workers. This emerging point of view toward curriculum development implies that improvement of teaching will not necessarily move forward on a solid front, but rather on a "broken front." Hence one teacher or one school may progress at quite different rates from other teachers or schools. Although not minimizing the importance of system-wide leadership, this viewpoint has resulted in placing greater responsibility for curriculum improvement on the individual school. This approach to curriculum improvement has already affected the role of the principal greatly, and will probably have even more influence in the future. The principalship really becomes a critically important leadership responsibility in the light of this recent concept of curriculum improvement.

Population and Socioeconomic Changes

Another pertinent factor affecting the development of the elementary school principalship is the change which has taken place in socioeconomic conditions and in population during the past century. Formal education, in scope and extent, is greatly affected by the socioeconomic status of the society supporting education. Likewise such conditions as life expectancy, age distribution, and birth rate have rather profound impact on the long-range goals assigned to formal education.

The value placed on education for children is undoubtedly greater today than in preindustrial America. When the family tends to be a self-sufficient social unit, a great amount of education is deliberately planned within this unit itself. Thus the need for formal education for the young exists, but not in such extent and scope as at present. When a society, such as ours, becomes highly industrialized, more and more responsibilities are assigned to the school. Similarly, compulsory attendance laws

are enacted; a longer school year is inaugurated; and schooling is extended downward to include kindergarten and nursery school as children assume different roles in the family group. All of these conditions have without doubt contributed toward enhancing the place of the elementary school in our culture.

The most dramatic impact on elementary schools and their leadership in the past decade is the great population changes which have been and still are occurring. A common prediction, in the decade of the 1930's, was that our population would become stable and perhaps even decline by the latter part of the twentieth century. Thus it appeared probable that principals in elementary schools would devote more time and energy to reducing class size, enriching the instructional program, and individualizing instruction. Such conditions, obviously, would have far-reaching effects on the leadership role of any school principal.⁴

This comfortable assumption of population stability has, of course, been superseded by daily concern with pressures from increasing enrollments. In the fifteen-year period since 1940, elementary school enrollment has increased more than five million, with continuing increases assured through the decade of the 1960's. The impact of this population shift on the principalship is quite significant. Obviously, great problems are presented; but, at the same time, great opportunities for leadership are available. The principal is in the forefront now in working with teachers and the community to assure educational opportunities for all children, in projecting educational needs of the school and the community, and in exercising leadership for continuous study of local needs and conditions.

The State Department of Education and Other Agencies

Another factor affecting the evolution of the elementary school principalship has been the influence of state departments of education, the Office of Education, and regional accrediting associations. The most influential of these agencies has been the state department of education. Inasmuch as education is constitutionally a state function, the opportunity for leadership by the state department of education has been great. One of the powerful influences exerted by the state department of education has been that of certification. Through the licensing process, steps have been taken toward raising the professional level of the elementary school and the principalship. Higher standards of preparation have, in themselves, contributed toward greater recognition of the significance of elementary schools. But perhaps as important, if not more so, has been the trend toward higher levels of certification for principals. Most certifica-

⁴ See, for example, Benjamin Fine, "City Class Rolls Shrinking Fast," *New York Times*, January 12, 1941.

tion regulations now require the prospective principal to have had all the preparation required of teachers plus some specialized preparation. Competence in supervision, pupil personnel, administration, and school organization is a reasonable expectation of the principal and is frequently required.

Examination of requirements for certification of elementary school principals shows a pronounced trend toward an increased demand for specific preparation for the position. One year of graduate education is required in a few states, although not yet in a majority of states. Preparation for teaching in elementary schools and actual experience are usually prerequisites for certification. In Iowa, for example, the principal of an elementary school must be eligible for an advanced elementary teaching certificate and must have had two years of successful teaching experience in elementary schools. Specific professional requirements include at least twenty semester hours of graduate work in elementary school administration, school-community relations, personnel services, and curriculum. Similar requirements exist in New York, although the minimum number of semester hours of graduate work is six.⁵

Probably the most significant influence exerted by state departments of education has been in instructional leadership. Many such departments still rate elementary schools according to more or less objective criteria, and personnel from some state departments inspect elementary schools for adherence to quantitative standards. These quantitative standards and inspections have certainly had effects on the elementary school, although the most promising development has been the acceptance of leadership roles by state departments of education. By functioning in this manner, state department personnel have attempted to stimulate in-service teacher education programs, have increasingly worked with local leadership in a consultative fashion, and have prepared curriculum guides rather than prescriptive courses of study.

Another influence of the state upon the development of the principalship has been in administration and finance. Some amount of discrimination in financial support in favor of high schools has been practiced in many communities. However, as well-planned programs for support of education have evolved in recent years, the elementary school has advanced greatly in availability of finance, buildings, and instructional equipment. Particularly in states where broad and comprehensive foundation programs of financial support have evolved has the status of the elementary school improved. All current indications are that state departments of education will continue to emphasize the need for a unified

⁵ Robert C. Woellner and M. Aurilla Wood, *Requirements for Certification* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954), pp. 39, 81.

twelve-grade program, with appropriate attention to the elementary school.

The influence of other agencies, such as the Office of Education and regional accrediting associations, has been less direct. Yet these agencies have contributed toward the evolution of the elementary school principalship in the direction of a recognized leadership position. The six regional accrediting associations in this country have historically been concerned almost entirely with colleges and secondary schools. Such associations came into being through the concern of colleges and universities for establishing academic standards in high schools. Yet today there is, on the part of these associations, increasing attention to leadership rather than to inspection for adherence to fixed standards. The regional study of elementary schools sponsored by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was referred to earlier as an example of awakening concern for the entire program of education. The Southern Association until now has abstained from accrediting elementary schools, but a plan has evolved whereby such schools may have voluntary membership in the Association and may participate on a continuing basis in various professional activities.

Finally it should be noted that state education associations have rendered yeoman service in the cause of education as a whole. But particularly for the elementary school teacher and principal, the associations have often provided the most vigorous leadership to be found. As in other instances, this impact on the present status of the principal may often have been indirect; nevertheless, it has been fruitful.

Voluntary Professional Organizations

It has frequently been observed that, like other groups in our country, educators have perhaps tended to organize too extensively. A casual perusal of the various groups affiliated with the National Education Association plus scores of independently organized groups does suggest that too many groups could become a divisive rather than a unifying influence. It should be noted, however, that a high percentage of these groups have, in the past, centered upon specialized subject fields or other common interests. Until relatively recent years few professional groups at the national level have had a primary concern for education in the elementary school. One of the most influential of these professional groups has been the Department of Elementary School Principals, organized in 1921. This organization has made outstanding contributions in developing a feeling of professional respect and pride among elementary school principals and in creating a recognition of the responsibilities principals should

assume. In addition, the organization has provided general stimulation to elementary education through regional organizations, conferences, publications, and various special projects. The influence of this organization has been greatly extended since 1945 through local, state, and regional groups and through a rapidly growing national membership.

Other professional organizations in recent years have focused their efforts in great measure upon the elementary school. The Department of Classroom Teachers has been particularly concerned with teaching in the elementary school, and the Association for Childhood Education International has rendered distinctive service to the elementary school. The publications of the latter organization have been unusually influential in improving teaching in elementary schools. One other organization of far-reaching influence in improving leadership in elementary education is the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Although not exclusively concerned with the education of children, this association has a high percentage of members who are primarily concerned with leadership at the elementary school level. Various publications of the organization have been specifically pointed to problems of leadership in the elementary school; and national, regional and state conferences have devoted much attention to leadership responsibilities of elementary school principals.

These professional organizations have been another major factor in elevating the elementary school principal to a higher level of professional leadership and recognition. Their influence promises to be even more extensive in the future.

Increased Diversification of Responsibilities of the Elementary School

A final factor to be considered is the tremendous expansion, in number and type, of responsibilities communities expect elementary schools to assume. A century ago, the simplicity of social and economic life was largely duplicated in the simplicity of function of the elementary school. Training in the three R's and some attention to character education constituted the major recognized responsibilities. Furthermore, elementary schools exerted a selective influence which eliminated a high percentage of children early in their school experiences. Relatively little research in child growth and development had occurred prior to this century, and this condition also contributed to a continuation of restricted functions of the elementary school.

As American society became more complex and technological advances resulted in specialization of economic function, goals of the educational program for children likewise became more comprehensive. Traditionally,

the American faith in education has been demonstrated in expectations that the school could and would help solve many community, state, and national problems. Thus prevention of accidents became a general concern, and safety education became an important function of the elementary school. In much the same fashion, the scope of the elementary school curriculum has been broadened to encompass attention to such areas as conservation of resources, health education, nutrition, prudent use of money, family education, and education for world understanding. Expansion of the curriculum has also come about through greater insight into the basic needs of children. Hence the modern elementary school, with hearty endorsement of parents, affords learning opportunities in music, art, science, and many other areas unheard of in the elementary school of a century ago.

One other forceful influence on expansion of the curriculum should be noted. This influence is that of legislation and board of education regulations. In a study some years ago, Flanders disclosed that legislative prescriptions were increasingly determining the nature of the curriculum.⁶ In practically all states today, there exist numerous legislative requirements which have resulted in curriculum expansion. Reading of the Bible, instruction in the effects of alcohol and narcotics, instruction in forestry, attention to thrift and frugality, teaching of health and physical education, and observance of special days illustrate some of the requirements elementary schools must abide by. Regulations of state and local boards of education are at times as prescriptive in curriculum requirements as are legislative enactments. Although a strong case can be made for local freedom from such prescriptions, the fact remains that such prescriptions have resulted in direct expansion of the responsibilities of the elementary school. Thus another factor has contributed, in the over-all picture, to further enlargement of the principal's role and, thereby, of his influence and recognition.

CURRENT STATUS OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

The principal of an elementary school today has advanced markedly in many respects even in comparison with two or three decades ago. He is widely recognized as an educational leader, has usually had advanced professional preparation, and is generally chosen on a professional basis. The scope of his responsibilities has continued to broaden, and his economic status has become more attractive. A few specific illustrations of

⁶ Jesse Knowlton Flanders, *Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum* (Contributions to Education, No. 195; New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925).

changes in status will point up the current position of the elementary school principal.

Professional Education

In general, principals of elementary schools have professional preparation beyond that specifically designated in certification requirements. A survey made in 1948 by the Department of Elementary School Principals disclosed that 64 per cent of the principals responding to a questionnaire possessed the master's degree, in contrast to 15 per cent in a similar study made in 1928. Although the percentage figure for the more than 20,000 elementary school principals in the entire country is probably not as high as that of the sampling, the dramatic advance in professional preparation in two decades is quite significant. This same study reveals that, of those reporting, only 4 per cent of supervising principals had no academic degree in 1948, in contrast with 50 per cent in 1928. Teaching principals in communities of 2,500 population or less are usually less well prepared, although the same relative advances in preparation have occurred.⁷ This advance in preparation has undoubtedly contributed to the recognition of the importance of the principalship and has greatly increased the potentialities of the individual principal for professional leadership. The principal of the future will consider the master's degree a minimum goal in professional preparation, and at least two years of advanced professional study should become an eventual goal.

Economic Status

One of the most important changes in status of elementary school principals in the past two decades has been economic. This change reflects, of course, the change in dollar support of education as a whole, but the change for principals of elementary schools has been far more significant than for other administrative positions. During the period from 1930-1931 to 1952-1953, the salaries of supervising principals of elementary schools in urban school districts with from 100,000 to 500,000 population advanced about 85 per cent, in comparison with an advance of about 52 per cent for principals of high schools.⁸ During this same period, the salaries of teaching principals advanced about 83 per cent. In urban school districts with from 30,000 to 100,000 population, salaries of supervising principals advanced 101 per cent; salaries of teaching principals,

⁷ Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow* (Twenty-seventh Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948), pp. 25-26.

⁸ Information in this section is adapted from Research Division, National Education Association, "Salaries and Salary Schedules of Urban School Employees, 1952-53," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 21, No. 2 (April), 1953.

110 per cent; while salaries of high school principals advanced 52 per cent. As a general practice, the median salaries of elementary school principals have advanced considerably more than those of high school principals, and the greatest advances have been in small rather than in large cities. These advances in salaries are undoubtedly accounted for partially by advances in level of professional preparation. Part of the advance may also be attributed to the greater recognition now accorded elementary schools, their principals, and their teachers.

Specific salary levels of principals vary as greatly as the levels of support for education in the various states. The Office of Education has estimated that the average salary for all instructional personnel in public schools in 1950-1951 was \$3,126. State averages for the same year vary from a low of \$1,545 to a high of \$3,840.⁹ The actual salaries paid principals of schools tend to vary in the same way. The median salary paid supervising principals in urban school districts with from 30,000 to 100,000 population in 1952-1953 was \$5,316, and for teaching principals the median salary was \$4,231. It is interesting to note that although salaries of elementary school principals have advanced more rapidly than those of high school principals, the median salary of high school principals in the same kind of district in 1952-1953 was \$6,523. Much of this differential in actual salary can be accounted for by the fact that high schools, on the average, are considerably larger than elementary schools. The one most important conclusion to be reached from these data is that the economic status of elementary school principals has advanced markedly and that salaries now are more nearly of a professional nature than ever before.

Duties and Responsibilities

A third area which discloses the great growth of the elementary school principalship is that of his current duties and responsibilities. Brief mention has already been made in this chapter of the growth in scope and nature of this position. Currently the principal has a great variety of responsibilities which are relatively recent in origin. Increasingly the individual school is being viewed as a semi-autonomous unit within the system as a whole. This concept implies much greater latitude for the principal in practically all areas of administration and supervision. The 1948 study of the Department of Elementary School Principals included an analysis of the most common duties and responsibilities of elementary school principals. This list of duties shows how varied are the responsibilities of principals and how greatly the position has grown in recent years.

⁹ Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems, 1950-51* (Circular No. 367; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1953), p. 7.

Mandatory ministerial duties:

- To be present in building between specified hours
- To keep certain records and accounts
- To receipt for delivered supplies
- To check school census
- To inventory equipment, books, and supplies
- To check payroll list
- To report injuries to pupils and employees
- To fly American flag

Discretionary ministerial duties:

- To conduct fire drills
- To supervise janitors
- To report needed building and equipment repairs
- To supervise building at recess and noon hours
- To notify parents of unsatisfactory work of pupils
- To regulate, permit, or refuse entrance to visitors
- To regulate, permit, or prohibit advertising or exhibits in building
- To requisition and dispense supplies and equipment

Discretionary ministerial powers:

- To classify pupils
- To keep personnel records of teachers
- To keep personnel records of pupils
- To assign teachers
- To make curriculum schedules
- To conduct teachers' meetings
- To allocate funds made available for building, according to budget
- To obtain substitutes for teachers who are absent
- To evaluate teachers' efficiency
- To supervise instruction
- To cooperate with juvenile court and other law enforcement agencies
- To regulate or abolish activities of teachers and pupils in building
- To handle complaints of patrons
- To discipline pupils ¹⁰

These are the duties practically any principal of an elementary school must be prepared to meet. Such duties characterize a position which now is one of the most important in the entire educational system.

SUMMARY AND LOOK AHEAD

The central point of this chapter has been that the principalship of the elementary school has evolved gradually from a limited "head teacher" position to one of leadership. Along with this evolution has come a great expansion of duties and responsibilities. The position is just now at the

¹⁰ Department of Elementary School Principals, *op. cit.*, p. 158.

threshold of real professionalization. Educational preparation, economic status, scope of responsibilities, opportunities for service, and methods of selection are of sufficient extent and quality to justify the contention that the principal of an elementary school can claim professional status of a high order. The next chapter considers some of the legal and ethical aspects of the principalship essential to adequate assessment of the principal's leadership responsibilities.

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDY

1. The contention is often made that principals of elementary schools are still primarily technicians. To support this contention it is asserted that most of the principal's time is devoted to such routines as handling money, signing excuses for children, managing lunchrooms, supervising custodial service, and keeping records of pupil achievement and progress. Is this contention true in your school system? What can be done to correct such situations where they do exist? How can principals carry out these administrative details more expeditiously?

2. In one school system of ten elementary schools, clerical and secretarial help is quite inadequate. A proposal has been made to supply such service by allocating sufficient funds in the next budget to employ additional clerks and secretaries for each school. A member of the board of education has seriously questioned this proposal by asserting that release of principals from many routines would merely mean they would find other routine duties to assume. How would you answer such assertions? Can you show how a principal could use his time more profitably if he were released from many routine duties?

3. Two new principals were seriously discussing how they would assume their leadership roles. One principal contended that attention to details, such as records and efficient management, must come first. He even asserted that principals more often lose their jobs over inattention to details than over failure to exercise instructional leadership. The second principal contended that house-keeping duties can be routinized and that instructional leadership offers the real challenge and opportunity for any principal. Is there a conflict in these positions? How important are administrative details to the success of a school? How will you handle both types of responsibilities?

4. In your state, the department of education has appointed a committee to make proposals regarding certification of elementary school principals. This committee has been requested to describe the competencies needed by principals and then to propose a program of education in accordance with these competencies. How would you proceed? Are there personal qualifications which should be listed? Should high school and elementary school principals have the same professional education? Should experiences in sociology, public finance,

and similar areas be included? Should teaching experience in elementary schools be required before certification of principals?

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

- Caswell, Hollis L., and A. Wellesley Foshay, *Education in the Elementary School*. New York: American Book Company, 1950.
- Cooperative Study in Elementary Education, *Education of Elementary School Personnel*. 316 Peachtree St., N.E., Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1951.
- Cremin, Lawrence A., *The American Common School: An Historic Conception*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951.
- Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary School Principalship*. Seventh Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1928.
- , *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*. Twenty-seventh Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948.
- Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Children*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948.
- Elsbree, Willard S., and Harold J. McNally, *Elementary School Administration and Supervision*. New York: American Book Company, 1951.
- Flanders, Jesse Knowlton, *Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum*. Contributions to Education, No. 195; New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925.
- Jacobson, Paul B., William C. Reavis, and James D. Logsdon, *Duties of School Principals*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950.
- Otto, Henry J., *Elementary School Organization and Administration*. 3rd ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954.
- Pierce, Paul Revere, *The Development of the Public School Principalship*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935.
- Reisner, Edward H., *The Evolution of the Common School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930.
- Research Division, National Education Association, "Salaries and Salary Schedules of Urban School Employees, 1952-53," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 21, No. 2 (April), 1953.
- Woellner, Robert C., and M. Aurilla Wood, *Requirements for Certification*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955.

3~

Legal and Ethical Aspects of the Elementary School Principalship

THE LEADERSHIP ROLE of the elementary school principal is inescapably related to his legal and ethical rights and responsibilities. Relations with teachers, pupils, parents, other administrative officials, and the public in general create situations in which the principal often confronts legal and ethical questions. A new elementary school principal has suggested the following questions as pertinent to his particular situation:

- What is the relationship of the principal to the superintendent and board of education?
- Can a principal be sued for negligence if accidents occur on school grounds?
- Do teachers have special rights because of their positions?
- What curriculum restrictions or mandates must be considered?
- What legal considerations should be taken into account in matters of discipline and conduct of pupils?

In reviewing such questions as these, the elementary school principal recalls that the increasing complexity of our society and our educational system has resulted in enactment of numerous laws, adoption of state board of education regulations, and establishment of local board of education policies. It thus becomes important that the principal be reasonably familiar with the laws, regulations, and policies applying to teacher certification and welfare, pupil conduct, safety and welfare of children, as well as to countless other aspects of the elementary school program. The questions most often raised by elementary school principals are

grouped, for convenience, around the areas of administration and finance, teachers' rights and welfare, the curriculum, and relations with pupils.

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

One of the historical principles of great significance to public education is that education is a state, not a federal, function. The local school district is therefore an extension of the state and, in effect, acts on behalf of the state. Thus the public school system is locally controlled, except that the local district must operate within the broad framework established by the state. This local district is a quasi-public corporation with rather broad powers in most instances. Boards of education are created by law to govern the activities of school districts and to be responsible to the people for an efficient system of schools. It should be pointed out that the courts have generally upheld the policies adopted by boards if these policies are in accordance with laws and policies of the state and if power is not exercised capriciously, arbitrarily, or unjustly.

The principal of an elementary school, of course, will have little official contact with the board of education. The board rightfully delegates to the superintendent of schools responsibility for actual administration of schools in accordance with policies established by the board. This responsibility is, in turn, delegated to other personnel, including school principals. Thus the principal of an elementary school today possesses great responsibility and considerable power, not by reason of legal provision for the position, but by virtue of delegation of responsibility. Principals of elementary schools are, in effect, an extension of the power delegated to superintendents of schools and, to a certain extent, act on behalf of the superintendent. In recent years great changes have occurred in actual operation of the administrative process, and administration in most school systems today is not conceived to be a one-man affair. Rather, administration of school systems is increasingly a truly cooperative process in which many persons participate. Yet the elementary school principal must remember that, in a legal sense, the board of education holds the superintendent of schools responsible for the entire system and that delegation of authority and responsibility is a convenience necessitated by the magnitude of the job to be done.¹

Inasmuch as education is a state function which is locally administered, extreme variation exists in the level of financial support of schools. This

¹ For a good discussion of the legal basis of school boards and school districts, see Madaline Kinter Remmlin, *The Law of Local Public School Administration* (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953).

variation exists not only between states, but also within each state. The elementary school principal has no direct responsibility for budgeting school funds, but indirectly he has a considerable obligation to be familiar with methods of financing education in his school district. Usually support of education is a partnership responsibility between the local district and the state. Local real estate taxes still provide a major source of school funds. It is especially important that principals be acquainted with various sources of revenue, the amount expended for education, and other fiscal matters in order to speak intelligently with teachers and parents. The need for such understanding is particularly apparent during campaigns for tax increases to build new schools and provide greater financial support for schools. In many instances principals are also called upon for leadership in state-wide campaigns for increased appropriations, constitutional revision, and other movements for the improvement of education. Since variations are so great from one state to another and even from one school district to another, the authors propose that a wide-awake principal should be sufficiently informed about his own school system to answer the following questions:

1. How is your board of education chosen? How many members comprise the board? Are members chosen at large or by subdistricts? Does the board have a published statement of policies by which it operates?
2. How is the superintendent chosen? What powers does the law in your state give him? For example, can the board of education elect personnel without the recommendation of the superintendent? What periodic reports do administrative personnel submit to the superintendent? What other administrative personnel are there in your school system? What responsibilities do they possess?
3. What is the nature of the annual school budget in your district? How much per child in average daily attendance is expended each year? What percentage of the budget is allocated to instruction?
4. What are the sources of the school revenue? How much does the district receive from the state? What are the sources of state revenue? What local taxes are used to support education? Does any other governmental agency have to approve the budget adopted by the board of education? Does your district have any indebtedness?

Possession of information suggested by these questions certainly contributes to the effectiveness of the principal as a leader of teachers and parents. Such informational background also contributes markedly to the principal's effectiveness as a member of an administrative team. In addition to his general responsibility as an educational leader, the principal of an elementary school also has a specific financial responsibility in most communities. This responsibility involves the proper management of

funds collected in individual schools. There are many sources of local school funds, and the actual amounts of money handled will vary greatly. But many elementary schools will handle several thousand dollars each year. These funds come from lunchroom proceeds, charges for various public performances, and numerous other activities. In addition, many elementary schools charge children a materials fee, a library fee, or a fee for other special purposes. These funds, too, are eventually entrusted to the principal for proper management and handling.

Proper accounting for and management of all these funds constitute a very important responsibility of the principal. Failure to recognize seriously this responsibility has resulted in numerous cases of public embarrassment, suspicion of mismanagement, dismissal, and occasionally even criminal prosecution. Proper and systematic handling of school funds is not a difficult task; but it is one which cannot be treated haphazardly or nonchalantly. There is probably no single best system for assuring proper management, but a system should certainly be adopted. In many school districts, all individual school funds are transmitted to the central business agent and are thereby accounted for as are all other funds. This procedure has much merit and is strongly recommended if locally feasible. If the funds are to be administered solely by the local elementary school, then there should be an audit of the funds each year. In addition, the principal should have a fidelity bond for the protection of himself and the school, and authorization for expenditure should usually be the responsibility of one person in addition to the principal. It is also good practice to give a monthly report to teachers, children, and parents on receipts and expenditures. Proper precaution and systematic attention to details in handling school funds are earmarks of a mature educational leader.

TEACHERS' RIGHTS AND WELFARE

By virtue of their position, teachers have certain legal rights not necessarily accorded to other citizens. These rights exist for the protection of the individual teacher as well as for general improvement of the teaching profession. An example of this kind of right is sick leave. If the legislature establishes a minimum sick leave policy for all teachers in the state, the teacher can demand this right and can force its recognition by legal proceedings. In certain instances, the same observance applies to tenure, retirement, and injuries sustained, if teachers are included within the scope of workmen's compensation laws. Principals of elementary schools have little direct administrative authority in the area being discussed; but the leadership responsibility requires understanding of subjects such as teacher certification, conditions of employment, tenure, and leaves of absence.

Certification

Certification of teachers is a state responsibility which has been exercised in numerous ways. Three decades ago, much of the responsibility for certification was delegated to local groups. Each school district had considerable power and responsibility for administering certification examinations and issuing certificates in accordance with established state policies. Now, certification is almost entirely administered at the state level, although in most states formation of certification policies is a co-operative responsibility. A teaching certificate is, in reality, legal permission by the state to engage in the profession of teaching. Certification of some kind is a prerequisite to teaching and, in some states, to actual employment. In some states a teacher who actually does teach without the proper certificate may lose the salary for this period by teaching; whereas in other states the courts have upheld the teacher's right to salary during this period, even though no valid certificate was held by the teacher.²

Certification requirements in the various states vary greatly in administration and specificity. In some states, certification requirements are written into law; while in other states, the state board of education is required to establish certification requirements and policies. The latter approach is growing in popularity and is considered more desirable professionally. The principal will, of course, familiarize himself with certification policies and practices in his own state. Usually, teachers must be citizens of the United States, of good moral character, and a certain minimum age. An oath of allegiance to the state and federal constitutions is also often required and, in some states, a special loyalty oath is required for original certification, as well as for teachers already in service.³ These loyalty oaths have been attacked in the courts as unconstitutional, but generally the courts have upheld such requirements.

Employment, Tenure, and Leaves of Absence

Conditions of employment, tenure, and leaves of absence affect teacher welfare and morale very directly. In many teaching situations the psychological significance of tenure provisions, for example, is more crucial

² *Buchanan v. School District No. 134*, 143 Kansas 417, 54P. (2d) 930 (1936); and *Tate v. School District*, 324 Missouri 477, 23 S.W. (2d) 1013, 70 A.L.R. 771 present different opinions. In the Kansas case, the teacher was denied the year's salary as a result of the teacher's having no certificate, while in the Missouri case the teacher's salary was permitted.

³ The principal may acquaint himself with certification requirements in general by reference to Robert C. Woellner and M. Aurilla Wood, *Requirements for Certification* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press). This publication is revised annually and is a valuable current reference. In addition, the principal should secure from the state department of education in his own state the published requirements for certification.

than any actual legal protection afforded the teacher. Similarly, ample provisions for leaves of absence for professional study and other purposes enhance the prestige of the teaching profession and contribute to the teacher's own professional growth.

Original employment of any teacher is one of the most significant aspects of educational administration. Although the principal has no administrative authority for employment, his recommendations are usually sought. It is necessary for the principal to recall that he cannot legally employ a teacher and that any verbal commitment he may make will be one of intention only. The school board is the only agency which can actually employ a teacher, although many states do provide that the board of education cannot employ personnel except on the recommendation of the superintendent. Generally speaking also, the teacher must have a written contract of employment if legal proceedings are ever instituted.⁴ In most states, a standard contract form for use in local school systems is available and constitutes the generally accepted form of teacher contract for that particular state.

In recent years, some provision for tenure of position has been enacted into law in most states. Generally speaking, tenure laws in the various states are continuing-contract laws or laws which spell out more specifically the teacher's status with respect to dismissal. The continuing-contract law usually specifies that the teacher has a continuing contract from year to year unless formal notice to the contrary is given by a specified date. The other kind of tenure legislation sets forth more details regarding a probationary status, reasons for dismissal, and procedures for guaranteeing the teacher proper hearings and an opportunity to present a defense. Usually teachers occupy a probationary status for from two to five years subsequent to original employment, and must be formally placed on tenure by the board of education or released at the expiration of the probationary period.⁵

The principal of an elementary school generally becomes particularly involved at the point of recommending or failing to recommend a teacher for re-employment. Such recommendations are obviously not binding on the superintendent, but they are of considerable importance. When recommendations are sought, they must be given much deliberation and considerable thought. The teacher must receive fair and impartial consideration; however, the principal has a duty also to children and parents. If the principal is thoroughly convinced that a particular teacher should

⁴ See, for example, *Williamson v. Board of Education of Woodward*, 189 Oklahoma 342, 117 P. (2d) (1941).

⁵ Research Division, National Education Association, "The Legal Status of the Public-School Teacher," *Research Bulletin*, No. 2, 25:42-50 (April), 1947.

not be re-employed or should not be placed on tenure, it is his professional obligation so to recommend even though such action may be personally unpleasant.

The question often arises as to whether the principal himself possesses the rights set up by tenure laws. This question can be analyzed simply by reference to the creation of the position. If the principal is considered a teacher (with administrative duties added to his duties as a teacher), he then has merely the tenure rights of the teacher and can be legally relieved of his principalship and reassigned to teaching. If, on the other hand, the principal has a tenure status in the administrative position as such, then he has protection as a principal. In a majority of states, administrative personnel do not yet have tenure in administrative positions. There is divided opinion as to whether tenure provisions should be generally extended to include administrative positions. Remmlein, however, has contended that, "Tenure for principals and other administrators is even more important than for classroom teachers, because they are interested not only in continuing their employment in the school system but they are also interested in continuing their employment as principals."⁶

THE CURRICULUM

Legislative enactments over the years have had a great impact on the curriculum of the public school. The nature and scope of these regulations vary greatly from one state to another. In many states in which legislative prescriptions are absent, state or local board of education regulations are just as important since they have the force of law. The principal may not, at all times, agree that the particular laws or board policies relating to the curriculum are professionally defensible, but he is legally obligated to take them into account in curriculum planning.

General Curriculum Requirements

The state has the legal right to specify what shall be taught in public schools as well as the length of time devoted to a subject, so long as such specifications do not abridge the liberties of individuals. The degree to which this right is exercised varies greatly and in most instances is not a seriously hampering factor. In recent years exercise of this right through issuance of formal curriculum requirements by the state department of education has lessened. Courses of study are now increasingly viewed as instructional guides rather than as specific directives which must be followed by local schools.⁷ Yet there are general curriculum requirements

⁶ Remmlein, "Legal Principles for Principals," *National Elementary Principal*, 32:29 (February), 1953. See also the December, 1952, and April and May, 1953, issues of the same magazine.

⁷ See, for example, courses of study for elementary schools issued in such states as Alabama, Virginia, Colorado, Kansas, and California.

which do impinge upon curriculum planning. Many states specifically require the teaching of thrift and frugality, the effects of alcohol and narcotics, American history, conservation of resources, and state history. Certain patriotic observances are likewise required, and most states specify that the ideals and principles of American democracy must be taught. In Maryland, for example, it is legally required that, "The public school program shall provide, that the love of liberty and democracy, signified in the devotion of all true and patriotic Americans to their flag and to their country, shall be instilled in the hearts and minds of the youth of America."⁸

Local boards of education have the power to adopt curriculum requirements also, so long as such requirements are not in conflict with existing state policies. Many local boards do have policy regulations concerning subjects required to be taught, special observances, and requirements for advancing from one school unit to another. Such local board policies as exist must be adhered to in curriculum planning by the school staff.

Selection of Textbooks

One of the most direct applications of state policies to the local school district is in the selection of textbooks for use in the school. Some states still prescribe in detail what textbooks shall be used; whereas other states adopt multiple listings of books or leave the choice entirely to the local district. If the choice is left exclusively to the local district, each school system usually establishes policies for guiding individual schools or adopts a specific list of textbooks to be used. The elementary school principal must, of course, adhere to whatever policies exist, but he should recognize that required textbooks do not have to be the only source of learning experiences.

Instruction in Moral and Spiritual Values

The teaching of moral and spiritual values is increasingly being discussed in communities throughout the United States. The evolution of public education has resulted in the emergence of two generally accepted principles as guides for schools in this curriculum area. These two principles are that public schools shall be nonsectarian and that public funds shall not be used to support private schools. Despite the acceptance of these principles, however, there is great difference of opinion relative to their implementation. Many individuals and groups subscribe to these principles, but believe that the public school cannot ignore religion and the influence of religion on moral values. Consequently, the school has often been in a state of confusion regarding its specific responsibilities.

⁸ Ward W. Keesecker, "Duty of Teachers to Promote Ideals and Principles of American Democracy," *School Life*, 30:32 (February), 1948.

All public education adherents are in agreement that the school must and does teach moral and spiritual values. No such agreement exists with respect to how moral and spiritual values may be taught most successfully.⁹

Many different approaches to this subject have been tried. In some states daily reading of the Bible is legally required. There have been several cases attacking this requirement, and state courts have ruled differently. The decision of an Iowa court maintained, "That the Bible, or any particular edition, has been adopted by one or more denominations as authentic, or by them asserted to be inspired, cannot make it a sectarian book. The book itself, to be sectarian, must show that it teaches the peculiar dogmas of each sect as such. . . ." ¹⁰ Other state courts have ruled differently, however, especially if no state law definitely requires daily Bible reading. This issue has never been completely before the Supreme Court of the United States, and there is consequently no definitive answer as to the constitutionality of laws requiring reading of the Bible in the public schools.¹¹

Another attempt at religious instruction in the public schools has been through the released-time approach. This procedure involves releasing children from the jurisdiction of the school at certain times for religious instruction. In some schools, this release results in instruction of children in churches of their choice. This procedure has been upheld by state courts. Another procedure has been the organization of religious classes within the school itself and the release of children to these classes. In the famous *McColum* case, the Supreme Court of the United States declared this arrangement unconstitutional. The court did point out the importance of religion in American life, but strongly reaffirmed the traditional principle of separation of church and state. In a concurring opinion, Justice Jackson had the following to say:

While we may and should end such formal and explicit instructions as the Champaign plan and can at all times prohibit the teaching of creed and catechism and ceremonial and can forbid forthright proselyting in the schools, I think it remains to be demonstrated whether it is possible, even desirable, to comply with such demands as plaintiff's completely to isolate and cast out of secular education all that some people may reasonably regard as religious

⁹ For a recent general pronouncement in this area, see Educational Policies Commission, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1951).

¹⁰ Quoted in Warren E. Gauerke, "Religion and the Public Schools—Some Legal Problems," *School and Society*, 75:401-404 (June 28), 1952.

¹¹ See D. W. Tieszen, "Legal Concepts Concerning Religious Influences in Public Education," *Teachers College Record*, 55:61-69 (November), 1953, for further discussion of this whole question.

instruction. . . . Music without sacred music, architecture minus the cathedral, or painting without the scriptural themes would be eccentric and incomplete, even from a secular point of view . . . one can hardly respect a system of education that would leave the student wholly ignorant of the currents of religious thought that move the world society, for a part in which he is being prepared.¹²

A closely related problem to that of religion and education is the requirement of certain patriotic observances. In most schools one of the methods used to inculcate love and respect for our country is saluting the flag and repeating the Pledge of Allegiance. Only rarely does any parent object to this act on the part of his child. A case involving this question did reach the United States Supreme Court; and in 1940, the court upheld the constitutionality of requiring flag salutes.¹³ In 1943, the same question came before the Court as one involving the religious freedom of the sect known as Jehovah's Witnesses. In this case the Court overruled the *Gobitis* case and declared that compelling pupils to salute the flag interferes with the freedom guaranteed citizens by the First Amendment of the Constitution.¹⁴

The significance of all these various curriculum requirements is that the teacher must abide by them. Laws and regulations of boards of education are enforceable unless thrown out by the courts, and teachers have no protection by contract or tenure if violations exist. The principal, as the leader of the local school, likewise has a responsibility to observe legal requirements in the course of his work with teachers on curriculum improvement.

LEGAL ASPECTS OF RELATIONS WITH PUPILS

Pupil relations with teachers, principals, and other school employees present the most likely possibilities for serious difficulties. Historically, the courts have held that a school district as a creature of the state is immune from liabilities for injuries to pupils sustained on school property. In fact, it is an established legal principle that the school district cannot voluntarily accept liability unless the state itself so prescribes by law. There is no doubt that much dissatisfaction exists over the principle of immunity, and a few states have altered the principle by legislation. California, for example, has abrogated the principle and permits the school district to be sued for injuries to pupils. New York is another state which permits the school district to assume responsibility for judgments

¹² *Illinois ex rel. McCollum v. Board of Education of School District No. 71, Champaign County*, 333 U.S. 203 (1948).

¹³ *Minersville v. Gobitis*, 310 U.S. 586 (1940).

¹⁴ *West Virginia Board of Education v. Barnette*, 319 U.S. 624 (1943).

against its employees. In a few other states special state funds have been created to pay for medical and hospital expenses of pupils injured on school property. Despite these adjustments in the immunity principle, however, the general principle holds in most situations that the school district is not liable for injuries, even though negligence exists.¹⁵

Immunity from liability does not apply as completely to school employees. Teachers and principals may, under certain conditions, be held liable for injuries to pupils. Legally the teacher—and presumably the principal also—holds a status referred to as *in loco parentis*. This status simply signifies that the teacher is, in effect, serving in place of the parent during the hours in which the child is in school. Yet the courts have interpreted this status as something different from that of parents. Generally speaking, the teacher does not legally possess as much power over the child as do parents. Furthermore, the teacher in certain instances may be personally liable for injuries, whereas the parent in similar situations might not be considered blameworthy.

In view of the legal aspect of responsibility to pupils and also as an affirmative educational measure, necessary precautions must be taken to see that obviously dangerous conditions do not exist on school premises. In cases which have come to the courts, considerable concern has been given to ascertaining whether the teacher or principal acted as any normally prudent or foresighted person would. If danger or injury could clearly be foreseen, then personal liability by the teacher or principal may be adjudged. For example, one court has held a teacher liable for injuries sustained by a boy in a boxing experience, since the teacher permitted two boys with no instruction in boxing to participate in this activity.¹⁶ In all cases in which teachers are confronted with legal proceedings, the teacher may also contend that even if negligence existed it did not contribute to the injury. If such a contention can be defended, the courts will usually uphold the teacher. A great amount of protection exists for the teacher or principal; nevertheless, unusual care and precaution need to be displayed to avoid unfavorable publicity and possible personal liability.

Pupil Conduct

A modern school leader is oriented in principles of human growth and development and in mental hygiene. He knows that pupil conduct is a complex human reaction that cannot be explained by dogmatic assertions or simple generalizations. He knows further that imaginative teachers

¹⁵ American Association of School Administrators, N.E.A., *School District Liability* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1953).

¹⁶ Robert R. Hamilton, "On the Liability of Teachers," *Michigan Education Journal*, 24:557 (May), 1952.

realize that the actual power conferred upon them by law to control pupils' conduct is seldom needed. The kind of principal described by the authors throughout this volume seldom, if ever, has to resort to corporal punishment or other harsh methods for maintenance of discipline. It is highly desirable, however, for principals to understand the legal aspects of control of pupil behavior and to know what local policies exist with respect to such control.

In a legal sense, pupils have the responsibility of abiding by rules, regulations, and school laws. The school has wide discretionary powers as to the kinds of rules, regulations, and policies it will establish. Failure to comply with school requirements affords legal reasons for punishment, including corporal punishment in most states, suspension, or expulsion. Generally speaking, suspension and expulsion of pupils are not within the powers of principals and teachers. Temporary suspension of pupils from school by the principal will generally be upheld; but the board of education is usually the agency which possesses the authority to expel pupils for misconduct.

Teachers and principals are most likely to become embroiled in difficulties in administering corporal punishment or other unreasonable or inhumane types of punishment. New Jersey and the District of Columbia specifically prohibit corporal punishment. Other states place restrictions upon this type of punishment, and many local boards of education have policies which prevent infliction of corporal punishment. Even in situations in which restrictions do not exist, punishment must not be unreasonable or excessive and must not be administered maliciously. Cruelty to children is illegal in all states, and corporal punishment of children has on occasion been held by courts to constitute cruelty. Many complications may arise from ill-advised and hastily considered punishment.

The position taken by the authors previously should be reiterated. Control of children's conduct should be a creative and positive endeavor. Punishment is undoubtedly necessary in some situations, but more effective methods can usually be found than corporal punishment and other cruel methods. The future behavior of the child, rather than punishment for past behavior, should be the focus of interest. The modern elementary school principal works with teachers to develop a wholesome and sympathetic attitude toward children and an understanding of how to work imaginatively with children.¹⁷

Pupil Injuries

The principal and teachers are more likely to encounter legal complications as a result of injuries sustained by pupils than in any other

¹⁷ For a good legal discussion of this subject, see Madaline Kinter Remmlin, *School Law* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950), pp. 232-253.

way. A modern school program does present countless situations in which accidents can and do happen. Playground equipment, science equipment, machines in shop courses, hand tools, safety patrols, field trips—all these present potential dangers for children. The following are illustrative of the situations in which the courts have held teachers or the school district liable for injuries sustained by pupils:

Injury suffered by pupil in headstand
Child hit by swung bat without knobbed handle
Springboard split when used
Child injured in use of playground swing placed unsafely
Child falls into hole on school grounds
Child injured in gymnasium during unsupervised period ¹⁸

These cases of injuries to pupils merely point up the need for exercising care and foresight in eliminating or lessening the dangers inherent in many school situations. If legal involvements do occur as a result of injuries, the teacher obviously has some legal defense in most situations. She may contend the child contributed to his own misfortune by his own negligence. It must be remembered, of course, that children cannot be expected to exhibit the same reactions as adults and that what may be negligence on the part of adults may not be negligence by children. Prudence and foresight must therefore be exhibited in school activities and especially in those which present potential dangers.

Field Trips

Trips and excursions to points away from the campus are generally recognized as essential to a modern program of education for children. Farms, forests, industrial plants, museums, parks, and countless other points of interest afford learning opportunities which cannot be duplicated. These teaching resources must be used if children are to acquire the kind of education essential for accepting their roles as intelligent citizens of their communities. Thus it must be assumed that field trips and excursions will constitute important means of curriculum improvement and enrichment.

As community activities are accepted by the principal and teachers as necessary to the school program, there must also be recognition of the fact that potential dangers for children exist in such activities. Undoubtedly the safest activities are the traditional classroom activities in which little contact is made with the actual world of things and events.

¹⁸ Nathan Doscher and Nelson Walke, "The Status of Liability for School Physical Education Accidents and Its Relationship to the Health Program," *Research Quarterly*, 23:280-294 (October), 1952.

Although potential dangers do exist in extending the classroom, reasonable precaution will generally prevent personal liability by the principal and teachers. Unless precautions are taken, however, teachers may become personally liable for injuries to pupils.

One of the first considerations in making field trips or excursions is that careful planning take place in advance. Any use of a community resource should be planned as carefully as the use of printed or other instructional materials. But additional planning should take place if trips away from the school are to be taken. The hour of departure, method of transportation, responsibilities of officials at places to be visited, orientation of pupils in advance, agreement on safety guides to be followed, amount of time to be spent away from the campus—this kind of planning will greatly lessen potential dangers involved as well as assure a more fruitful learning experience.

Another part of the planning for such activities should involve keeping parents informed. Informing parents is desirable not only in order that they will understand the nature of school activities, but also because parents will be less likely to hold the school at fault if they have been informed in advance. Many schools follow the practice of requesting parents to sign statements that the school will not be held responsible in the event of accidents. This practice is probably desirable as a matter of record and information, but legally the signing of a waiver by parents has little significance. Parents cannot sign away the rights of their children or their right to sue for damages.

Perhaps the most important precaution which a principal or teacher can take is to assure adequate supervision of children while they are away from the school itself. The teacher of the group should be particularly alert in his supervisory responsibilities at all times. In most instances, additional supervision is essential. Parents can usually be depended upon to cooperate in helping to supervise field trips, thereby reducing possibilities of accidents and also encouraging interest in and understanding of the school program.

School Patrols

Pupil patrols in elementary schools afford opportunities for additional protection to children and for significant learning experiences. Some principals have been overly sensitive about the dangers involved in pupil patrols and have consequently refused to endorse or support this pupil activity. Currently available information indicates, however, that accident rates among pupils are no greater in supervised patrol activities than in other school activities. If proper safeguards are exercised, the principal need have no hesitation in encouraging the formation of fire patrols, bus

patrols, or traffic patrols. Supervisors of these activities must remember that pupils have no legal authority to direct traffic or to exercise adult responsibilities. It is doubly important, therefore, that pupils chosen for patrol activities be reliable, that written permission for participation be secured from parents, that careful instruction in the nature of patrol activities be given all pupils, and that adult supervision be provided at all times.¹⁹

Messenger Service and Errands

Pupils in elementary schools generally gladly cooperate in helping teachers and principals provide improved services for the school as a whole. They render service in lunchrooms, libraries, and offices. In some situations there is a tendency to exploit children and to request that they perform personal services or that they render school services which are the duties of school employees. Pupils cannot be compelled to run errands for teachers or principals, to clean classrooms, or to wash chalkboards. Failure of pupils to accept such responsibilities cannot legally be followed by punishment.

Closely related to provision of errand service is the practice in some schools of requiring children to return home during the school day for instructional materials left at home. Although such procedures may at times be educationally sound, it must be remembered that if accidents occur on such occasions the teacher may be held liable. The same result may conceivably come about if pupils are retained after school hours and then must go home when there is less protection from traffic and other hazards than at the hour school closes. Children are entrusted to the school for certain hours each day, and the school is obligated to protect their welfare, not to entrust them to strangers, and not to exploit them for personal convenience. Legally as well as ethically, the teacher and principal must place the welfare of each pupil above other considerations.

School Emergencies

Despite all the precautions which may be taken by the principal and teacher, emergencies will still arise. Occasionally, fatal accidents may occur, serious injuries may result, or disaster may strike. On such occasions it is absolutely essential that calm and reasoned judgment prevail.²⁰ The

¹⁹ For a good discussion of pupil patrols, see Research Division, National Education Association, "Pupil Patrols in Elementary and Secondary Schools," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 28, No. 1 (February), 1950.

²⁰ See Paul W. Kearney, "A Lesson from a Dotted Line of Blood," *Reader's Digest* (December), 1947, pp. 57-58. This article describes how nine hundred children were saved from further injury in the Texas City disaster.

principal or teacher does have responsibility to render such first aid as may be appropriate. It should always be borne in mind that *first aid only* may be given—that teachers are not medical personnel. Obviously, a nurse should be called in if one is readily available, and medical attention should be sought as soon as possible. Parents should also be promptly notified if serious accidents, injuries, or illnesses occur. If additional complications arise because of improper first aid, then the principal or teacher may be personally liable for damages. Careful and complete records of any serious accidents should be kept, and these records should be forwarded promptly to the appropriate administrative official of the school system.

A CHALLENGE TO LEADERSHIP

This review of the legal and ethical aspects of the principalship has suggested that a principal should acquaint himself with the legal background of his position. Assumption of the responsibilities of leadership should not, however, frighten any individual. Instances in which teachers and principals have had legal difficulties resulting from proper performance of duties are actually unusual. In fact, state laws protect principals and teachers to the extent that they have a privileged status and thereby possess a great amount of immunity. As teaching has become more generally recognized as a profession, legal regulations have served to enhance the status of teachers. The following quotation from a research study of the National Education Association points up the importance of the fact that the teaching profession is now a legally regulated profession:

Teachers should welcome the fact that public-school teaching is a profession regulated by law. For the most part the many state laws, defining the legal status of teachers, serve to elevate the occupation and make it a selected group distinguished by preparation, experience, and various personal qualifications.²¹

The most important responsibility of the principal in relation to legal and ethical aspects of his position is to exercise a positive leadership. He must recognize his own responsibilities, work with teachers to develop appropriate understanding, and work with parents in developing understanding and support of the school program. The following suggestions indicate some ways by which the principal can discharge his leadership responsibilities.

Become acquainted with the state school code.

Be familiar with methods and sources of school finance.

²¹ Research Division, National Education Association, "The Legal Status of the Public-School Teacher," *loc. cit.*, p. 29.

- Handle local funds with a proper system of accounting.
- Inform pupils and parents regularly on funds received and expended.
- Explore the need for a bond to guarantee financial performance.
- Become acquainted with state laws relative to certification, tenure, and conditions of employment.
- Survey carefully all state and local laws or policies pertaining to curriculum requirements.
- See that the school buildings and grounds are inspected regularly for potential dangers.
- Be thoroughly familiar with state or local policies regulating adoption and use of textbooks.
- Provide leadership among teachers for developing a positive point of view toward behavior of children.
- Develop in teachers an understanding of the need to exercise reasonable precautions to prevent injuries.
- Elicit parents' cooperation in helping supervise off-campus activities.

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDY

1. Several teachers in your school raise questions concerning the public school budget, sources of school revenue, methods of choosing board of education members, and powers of the board. How will you attempt to develop understanding about these matters? Or will you inform the teachers that administrators take care of these affairs which are no concern of teachers? What do you consider the most appropriate procedure for working with teachers to develop understanding of administrative and fiscal affairs?
2. The superintendent of schools has requested that you make recommendations regarding placement of a third-grade teacher on tenure. You have certain reservations concerning the teacher's competence and personality. On the other hand, you know that considerable antagonism will result if you recommend that the teacher not be placed on tenure. How will you proceed? What objective information should you present the superintendent? How can you substantiate your contention that the teacher's personality is a handicap in teaching children? Would you consult other teachers and parents?
3. The question of tenure for principals separate from teacher tenure is being discussed in your state. One argument is that tenure laws should not give tenure in a specific position, but merely security in employment. Another viewpoint is that tenure provisions should include principals as principals in order to assure continuation of leadership and individual security. What position will you take? What are the advantages and disadvantages of each viewpoint?
4. Considerable discussion is taking place in your community regarding the proper role of the school in relation to churches. One group insists that the

increase in juvenile delinquency is directly attributable to the school's failure to teach spiritual values. Another group contends that children should be released one hour each week for formal religious instruction by the churches. Still another group maintains that the school should approach the problem directly by teaching a course in Bible, keeping a record of church attendance, and having a fifteen-minute devotional period each day. As principal of the school, you cannot escape being consulted on these varying viewpoints. The local P.T.A. has finally requested you to discuss this whole subject before the entire membership. Will you accept the invitation? If so, what position will you take? What state legal provisions on the subject should you discuss? What U.S. Supreme Court decisions would you cite? What positive program along this line would you outline?

5. During the course of a physical education period, a fourth-grade boy engages in an activity that necessitates running vigorously. The boy, unfortunately, runs into a wall of the gymnasium and suffers a serious injury. You are summoned immediately and recognize that the injury can be quite serious. What steps will you now take? What information will you try to collect? Will you arbitrarily insist that the teacher eliminate such dangerous activities in the future? What plans will you make to guard against recurrence of such accidents?

6. A parent enters your office and relates that the first-grade teacher the evening before had disclosed some information about her son. The parent feels that the information is derogatory, even though true. The parent contends further that information about children should be confidential and that teachers have no right to disclose such facts. How will you respond to the parent? How will you handle the problem with the teacher? What should be the ethical code of teachers and principals in this respect?

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

- American Association of School Administrators, N.E.A., *School District Liability*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1953.
- Brooks, Fred E., "The Legal Status of the Pupil in the American Public School: A Study of Common-Law Principles." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation; Chicago: University of Chicago, 1948.
- Edwards, Newton, *The Courts and the Public Schools*. Rev. ed.; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955.
- Elsbree, Willard S., and Harold J. McNally, *Elementary School Administration and Supervision*. New York: American Book Company, 1951.
- Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, *Know Your School Law*. Bulletin No. 1; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1952.
- Garber, Lee O., *The Yearbook of School Law*. Philadelphia: School of Education, University of Pennsylvania. Published annually since 1950.
- Hamilton, Robert R., and Paul R. Mort, *The Law and Public Education*. Chicago: The Foundation Press, 1941.

- Johnston, Joseph Moorehead, "The Legal Status of the Public School Principal in the United States." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation; Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina, 1953.
- Poe, Arthur Clayton, *School Liability for Injuries to Pupils*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941.
- Remmlein, Madaline Kinter, *The Law of Local Public School Administration*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953.
- , *School Law*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950.
- Research Division, National Education Association, "The Legal Status of the Public-School Pupil," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 24, No. 1 (February), 1948.
- , "The Legal Status of the Public-School Teacher," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 25, No. 2 (April), 1947.
- , "Pupil Patrols in Elementary and Secondary Schools," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 28, No. 1 (February), 1950.
- Rosenfeld, Harry N., *Liability for School Accidents*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1940.

The teacher in his classroom, in order to expedite the learning of pupils, must perform such administrative functions as organizing the class for learning activities, planning with the group the purposes to be achieved and the activities appropriate thereto, assembling needed supplies and equipment, setting performance goals and time schedules, stimulating individual and cooperative activity, coordinating learning activities into a meaningful whole, and evaluating progress. The classroom teacher thus performs important administrative functions which call for high qualities of leadership, including exercise of judgment, ability to help others define issues and problems, skill in motivating and coordinating the activities of others, and ability to appraise progress toward clearly defined objectives. The most important decisions with regard to education are given effect, if at all, in the teacher-pupil setting.

.

The fact that everyone gets into the act should not lead us to overlook the key administrative roles assigned to certain positions. The persons occupying these key roles have special responsibilities for stimulating and guiding the cooperative activity thru which the purposes of education are achieved.

—American Association of School Administrators, *Staff Relations in School Administration* (Thirty-third Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1955), pp. 10, 11.

Section B

A MAJOR RESPONSIBILITY OF THE
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL IS
LEADERSHIP IN PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

Elementary schools are established to provide superior learning experiences for children. Principals and teachers must facilitate provision of these experiences—otherwise there is no reason for their activities. This section is primarily concerned with an analysis of some responsibilities of the principal in developing the school program.

The leadership concept, previously presented, emphasizes strongly that leadership is not a one-man process; rather, it is a process of working with groups much of the time. The first chapter in this section focuses upon the staff leadership responsibilities of the principal. Suggestions are offered for ways in which the principal may work with a staff for program development. Leadership in curriculum improvement is actually one of the major opportunities of the principal. In this area, opportunities for influencing education of children are great. The second chapter in the section, therefore, centers upon curriculum development. Organization of the school also has great influence upon the educational program; hence, school organization is the subject of the third chapter in the section.

Leadership of the School Staff

THE SCHOOL STAFF includes not only professionally qualified persons responsible for instructional phases of the program but also individuals who perform services—custodians, lunchroom workers, the school nurse and doctor, maintenance personnel, and the like. At times the staff will include parents, high school students, adults from the community with special talents or interests, and visitors from other communities and lands. The primary responsibilities of the principal, as far as staff leadership is concerned, of course, center in the professional staff—the classroom teachers. While recognizing the importance of service personnel to the total educational task, this chapter focuses attention primarily upon the problems, challenges, and opportunities of the elementary school principal as he works with teachers. The concepts presented are equally applicable, although with differing emphases, to all groups and individuals comprising the staff.

Increasing Importance of Teachers in Administration

During the past decade, no other aspect of administration has received more attention than staff participation in policy formation.¹ This trend will undoubtedly continue. It is obvious that, as teachers have a greater share in policy formation, their need for information in-

¹ See G. R. Koopman, Alice Miel, and Paul J. Misner, *Democracy in School Administration* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1943); Wilbur A. Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949); Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Cooperation: Principles and Practices* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1939); Van Miller, ed., *National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, Providing and Improving Administrative Leadership for America's Schools* (Fourth Report; New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951); and Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Group Processes in Supervision* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948).

creases; their ability in group participation must be developed; and their attitudes concerning administrators and administration must be improved. If teachers are to share in developing salary schedules, for instance, they must know the financial resources available, the commitments already made, the possibilities of obtaining additional revenue, the needs of other personnel, and the physical improvements which need to be made within the system. If teachers are to participate in administrative councils, they must learn the skills of effective group participation.

Need for Programs of Staff Improvement

In addition to the need for an improved staff due to the increasing opportunity for teachers to participate in administration, programs of staff improvement are needed because of (1) changing needs in the communities served by schools; (2) increased knowledge about children and what constitutes good teaching; (3) pressures to employ unqualified teachers resulting from the high birth rate and the imbalance in preparation of teachers for the various levels of the school system; and (4) professional atrophy or "withering on the vine."

CHANGING COMMUNITY NEEDS. Schools rarely keep pace with community conditions and needs. Schools formerly located in the better residential areas of many cities are now on the fringe of industrial developments and draw children from families with different values and needs. Schools which once were in quiet, family-centered villages suddenly are in bustling towns with growing pains. Schools in rural areas which once were surrounded by productive farms may now be encompassed by eroded hillsides with little or no fertile soil. Schools that once enrolled children only from native white families now may have a mixed or heterogeneous population. Such changing conditions in the communities of our nation require a changed education—at least in part. That there are enduring values, the authors do not doubt; but there are immediate needs, too. If democracy is to survive and improve, both long-range and immediate needs must be recognized.

INCREASED KNOWLEDGE ABOUT CHILDREN AND TEACHING. Although the profession of education has a long history, only during the past half-century have scientific methods been utilized to increase our understanding of the children taught and the effectiveness of various methods of instruction. The literature is now extensive, although incomplete. Many persons currently teaching in elementary schools received their education prior to the development of modern techniques of investigation and teaching. They were taught "what to do" and "how to do" when comparatively little was known about human growth and development. They

have been influenced to change some of their concepts through efforts of professional associations and contact with more recently educated teachers, but many are still using techniques which are only moderately effective. Such teachers need to have the opportunity of learning to teach more effectively, and all teachers need to keep abreast of developments.

UNQUALIFIED TEACHERS. In elementary schools at the present time, there are many teachers who are not qualified for the positions they hold. The demand for elementary school teachers has been much greater during the past ten years than the supply available. Although there has been a gradual rise, in colleges of education, in the number of persons planning to teach in the elementary school, the shortage is likely to continue for some time.

Filling the gap, in many instances, are teachers who planned to teach a subject matter area in high school or who completed a normal course sometime ago and have taught little since. To bemoan this condition does not improve it much. Superintendents have had to employ an adult for each available classroom—and in many instances two adults per classroom—in order to handle the number of children enrolled. On-the-job education is clearly a serious need for this group of teachers.

PROFESSIONAL APATHY. Keeping up with developments is one of the hardest tasks faced by any professional person. The American Medical Association recognizes the importance of re-educating doctors and plans extensive seminars, demonstrations, lectures, and publications in an attempt to keep members of that profession alert and well informed. The National Education Association and its related organizations provide similar possibilities for teachers—but many do not take advantage of the opportunities. Many colleges and universities provide conferences, workshops, special seminars, and courses to reawaken teachers—to challenge, inspire, and teach them better ways of guiding children. While all of these approaches should be continued, and in some instances, intensified, the local school district and the individual school should provide educational opportunities geared to prevent “withering on the vine.” Because elementary school teachers work with live and vibrant children, they need to be persons living in the present—not the past.

The elementary school principal holds a key position in the improvement of the professional staff. He is the acknowledged and appointed status leader. Whether he wants to or not, he will discover that among his most important functions are those related to “teaching teachers.” Whether the school becomes a challenging educational enterprise or a dull and dreary place for children depends not so much upon what is there at the outset of his effort as upon the quality of leadership he pro-

vides for the staff. What, then, are the tasks of the elementary school principal with respect to staff leadership?

THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN PROVIDING STAFF LEADERSHIP

The principal works in many ways to provide leadership for the school staff. The authors believe that the principal is especially responsible for working with the staff in order to (1) develop high morale, (2) formulate school policies, (3) harmonize differences and resolve conflicts, (4) stimulate group study, (5) stimulate individual study, (6) balance work and rest, (7) develop leaders in the group, (8) relate techniques to problems, and (9) encourage experimentation.

Developing High Morale

Morale, according to *Webster's*, is "a condition as affected by, or dependent upon, such moral or mental factors as zeal, spirit, hope, confidence." In everyday language, the morale of a person depends upon how he feels—his attitudes and sentiments. Extensive research in industry has shown that the way a person feels about the organization in which he works depends not so much upon his particular qualities or the physical working conditions, but rather upon the over-all effect of the interaction of the human beings with whom he works. The researches conducted at the Hawthorne works of the Western Electric Company demonstrated rather conclusively that the mental attitude of the workers—how they felt about being in the experiment and about the conditions actually or "thought to be" imposed—had more effect upon production than any other fact. The researchers discovered, in essence, that "whether or not a person is going to give his services wholeheartedly to a group depends, in good part, on the way he feels about his job, his fellow workers, and supervisors—the meaning for him of what is happening about him."²

Morale is necessary for any social organization to operate efficiently. One writer³ has likened group morale to individual physical health—absolutely essential, yet affected by many and diverse causes. Another,⁴ who describes life as "a continuous striving to satisfy ever-changing needs in the face of obstacles," identifies two overriding needs which must be met if high morale is to develop: "the necessity for security in the work situation; and the necessity for self-realization."⁵ McGregor goes on to

² F. J. Roethlisberger, *Management and Morale* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1941), p. 15.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 192.

⁴ Douglas McGregor, "Conditions of Effective Leadership in the Industrial Organization," in Schuyler Dean Hoslett, ed., *Human Factors in Management* (rev. ed.; New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951), p. 37.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 41.

indicate that security in the work situation is fostered by (1) an atmosphere of approval, (2) knowledge by the worker of what is expected of him, and (3) consistent behavior. He further indicates that self-realization or independence is fostered by (1) participation, (2) responsibility, and (3) the right of appeal. Most of these have direct application to the development of morale among members of a school staff.

AN ATMOSPHERE OF APPROVAL. The principal, more than any other individual, sets the atmosphere for the school. By his actions he convinces the staff of their worth, his interest, and the importance of their problems. *What* the principal does is frequently not as significant in the development of high morale, however, as *the manner in which he does it*. If teachers *feel* that the principal is fair and just, if they *feel* that they have his approval, if they *feel* that he will support them in the community and in administrative circles, if they *feel* that he is listening when they are talking, if they *feel* that he is a co-worker and a hard worker, high morale and a cooperative attitude are likely to exist. When an atmosphere of cooperation pervades a school and a school system, teachers are eager to try things—to experiment; they are eager to go beyond the “call of duty”; they are willing participants.

Nothing seems to bring about an atmosphere of approval quite so much as recognition of particularly effective work. All persons, according to W. I. Thomas,⁶ need to achieve recognition and success if their life needs are to be met. Teachers, due to the nature of their daily challenges, especially need to receive public approbation. Unfortunately, many teachers have had the experience of working hard on a school project only to have the principal receive and accept the recognition and praise. The good elementary school principal surrounds his staff with an atmosphere of approval based upon sincere recognition of accomplishments.

KNOWLEDGE OF THE JOB. For teachers to develop the security necessary for high morale, knowledge is needed. Teachers need to know board policies, community mores, school traditions, and routine ways of doing things. Many schools have developed orientation programs for teachers new to the system in order to systematize the furnishing of needed information. Handbooks of regulations are provided in many cities and counties. As teachers learn more about what is expected of them and as they understand the “rules of the game,” morale improves.

The orientation program for teachers new to the system should be carefully planned.⁷ Certainly, the teacher new to the community should be

⁶ W. I. Thomas, *The Unadjusted Girl* (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1923), p. 4, lists four human wishes: (1) the desire for new experiences, (2) the desire for security, (3) the desire for response, (4) the desire for recognition.

⁷ G. W. Ebey, “How Portland Greets Its New Teachers,” *Nation's Schools*, 42:28-30 (December), 1948; Metropolitan School Study Council, *Newly Appointed Teacher* (New

made to feel at home. Whether the community is large or small, the principal should be vitally concerned about discovering the best housing accommodations available. Freedom of choice should, of course, be provided the teacher. The principal should meet the incoming teacher at the train or bus or direct him to the school if he is driving, supply a list of possible rooms and apartments (in a large school system the personnel department may develop the list), furnish transportation or arrange for a guide to the places on the list the teacher is interested in investigating, and provide initial help in getting the new teacher settled comfortably.

In many instances, much of the orientation within the school itself is provided by other staff members. Much of this can be done informally, and perhaps that type of orientation is best. In numerous schools, principals ask one teacher to be responsible for a newcomer—to accept more than the usual responsibility for introducing the teacher to the staff, school, and community. When the teacher who has been in the system is carefully selected, this procedure has much merit. Dangers are inherent in the process, however, and the principal should recognize them. New members of a staff should bring with them ideas about how to do things. These ideas, when properly released, add to the know-how of the total staff. They represent one of the most promising ways of keeping a staff alive. When the "buddy" system is utilized for the induction of new teachers, it is easy for the newcomer to get the idea that "we do it this way" means that other ways are nonacceptable. It is probably true that numerous young teachers, eager to practice modern methods of teaching, are prevented from doing their best because of the orientation provided by experienced teachers.

Regardless of the procedures adopted for the orientation of new teachers by staff members, the principal himself must accept a major role in the process. He should recognize that the teacher new to the staff will need more help than the old-timers, whether or not the teacher has had previous teaching experience. He should certainly take advantage of every opportunity for introducing the teacher to the community—utilizing dinners, bridge parties, church affairs, service clubs, and similar situations.

York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950); H. Prehm, "New Teacher: The School Staff Can Help Him," *NEA Journal*, 39:436-437 (September), 1950; M. W. Essex and others, "Welcoming New Teachers as Individuals," *Nation's Schools*, 47:52 (May), 1951; California Elementary School Administrators' Association, *Meeting the Challenge of the New Teacher* (Oakland, Calif.: The Association, 1951); M. S. Wallace, "New Teachers' Evaluation of Induction Techniques," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 25:381-394 (April), 1951; C. M. Saunders, "Teacher Orientation," *School Executive*, 71:49-50 (July), 1952; and "Orientation of New Teachers: A Symposium," *NEA Journal*, 41:286-290 (May), 1952.

The principal can help by discussing with the teacher the nature of the neighborhood in which the school is located and by providing a short field trip for orientation purposes. To help the new teacher gain confidence in making home visitations, the principal can accompany the new teacher to several homes.

As the principal provides information which the teacher needs, he should be concerned about the attitudes being developed. How the teacher feels is important and will determine to a considerable extent what he will learn about the community.

CONSISTENT BEHAVIOR. The Western Electric researches demonstrated that factory workers responded best under foremen and supervisors who were consistent in their behavior. When children are asked to identify the qualities exhibited by their best teachers, they also frequently mention consistency of behavior.⁸ There is little doubt that teachers respect and respond favorably to principals who maintain consistent behavior toward them and toward children. Teachers need to feel that the "rules" will apply and will be interpreted fairly and consistently. For instance, if the contract signed by the teacher provides for five days of sick leave annually and if board regulations require that teachers notify the principal prior to eight o'clock in the morning when they are ill, the teacher should expect a calm and kind response to a phone call notifying the principal of illness. Normally, almost any elementary school principal will respond graciously. But when an epidemic has already decimated the staff, when the principal himself is below par physically, when members of the principal's family are ill and require an unusual amount of his time, it is more difficult to tell the fifth teacher who calls not to worry but to get well rapidly. Good principals attempt to be consistent, however. They try to blow warm all the time—not hot and cold. They respect the ideas of the members of the staff, and they show it by their actions.

PARTICIPATION. Being a part of decision making improves morale. Francis S. Chase points out that "teachers who report opportunity to participate regularly and actively in making policies are much more likely to be enthusiastic about their school systems than those who report limited opportunity to participate."⁹ Results of industrial researches show that when workers have the opportunity to learn about impending changes *in advance*, and especially when they are permitted to express their ideas about the changes and to make suggestions for handling them, "members of the group generally show much less resistance and dis-

⁸ Paul A. Witty, "The Teacher Who Has Helped Me Most," *Elementary English*, 24:345-354 (October), 1947.

⁹ Francis S. Chase, in *The Administrator's Notebook* (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, May, 1952), Vol. 1, No. 1.

turbance when the change actually takes place.”¹⁰ As elementary school principals work to develop high morale among members of the staff, they should regard providing opportunities for participation in decision making one of the most promising methods of attack.

RESPONSIBILITY. Just as participation breeds high morale, so also does responsibility. Teachers are happy and effective in those schools in which they feel responsible for the total program, not just for their classroom; schools in which leadership responsibilities are shared, not usurped by the status leader; schools in which freedom with responsibility is provided every teacher to act within cooperatively developed policies; schools in which members of the staff feel responsibility for attempting to influence the opinions of others and simultaneously for attempting to develop consensus which utilizes the best thinking of all members of the group. Responsibility develops concern for the welfare of the total organization, willingness to carry a fair share of the load, and high morale.

THE RIGHT OF APPEAL. As administration is democratized, the right of appeal becomes so much a part of the total process of action that members of the group accept it without question. As decisions are based on consensus rather than majority rule, the need for appeal diminishes. It is important, nevertheless, that the individual staff member feel that, within the total operating procedures provided for the administration of the school system, appeals can be made. Most frequently the appeal will be directed to the group—appeal for reconsideration of a decision previously made. Principals, too, need to feel that such appeals are possible—that they have the right to ask groups to reconsider action which seems unsound. In some instances, however, teachers may want to discuss certain problems with the superintendent of schools or, with his knowledge and approval, present a case directly to the board of education. Every person is entitled to a hearing on important issues. When each member of the group understands that he will receive a hearing, morale is improved.

Experienced elementary school principals have discovered that there are many ways to develop high morale. Since conditions vary from school to school and from community to community, actions which will produce good morale in one instance may not be suitable in another. Generally speaking, the following suggestions, modified as necessary to fit existing conditions, are likely to be good guidelines for action:

1. Make sure that you regard yourself as a co-worker with the teachers. Make sure that they have a responsible share in decision making.
2. Help the group recognize and praise the contributions of individual members.

¹⁰ Burleigh B. Gardner, *Human Relations in Industry* (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1948), pp. 275-276.

3. Encourage experimentation and provide continuing support for teachers who are interested in trying new ways of teaching.

4. Plan *with the staff* any changes which are made. If you have to act prior to staff discussion, be sure to explain your action at the first opportunity and seek discussion of the action. Establish school-wide policies whenever possible.

5. Strive for consensus rather than relying upon a simple majority vote, especially in matters involving policy.

6. Make sure that teachers know what they need to know in order to do an effective job. Plan carefully for the orientation of new teachers. Keep the staff informed concerning actions of the board of education.

7. Be sure that each teacher receives recognition for group work.

8. Maintain a permissive climate within the building, but attempt to make the total situation compelling for the individual.

9. Attempt to maintain a calm, kind, helpful, and friendly mien at all times, but don't "throw in the towel" if you slip occasionally. Principals are (and should be) human, too!

10. Listen much of the time. Others want someone to talk to—even as you do. Be a good listener for members of your staff.

Formulating School Policies

One of the principal's chief responsibilities is the development, with the staff, of school policies. Morale is almost sure to rise if the group functions effectively at this point. Groups with low morale, however, cannot function effectively as policy-making bodies. A measure of allegiance to the development of the group and to the school is needed, which, in turn, depends to a considerable extent upon the quality of leadership available.

If teachers are to participate responsibly in policy formation, it seems evident that as many decisions as possible should be made at the local school level. Within policies established by the board and interpreted by the superintendent, each school staff should be given freedom and responsibility for developing an effective program. Such administrative practices are becoming more common, but there are still many school systems in which the central office expects or requires teachers to follow a program developed apart from a group of children. If high morale is to develop and if the principal is to provide democratic rather than autocratic leadership, the principle of semi-autonomy for the individual school must be supported by the central administration.

HOW DEMOCRATIC CAN YOU GET? Francis S. Chase, of the Midwest Administration Center at the University of Chicago, has attempted to get the reactions of teachers toward participation in policy making. After

reviewing the evidence of his findings (interviews with four hundred teachers in five selected school systems and 1,800 questionnaire returns from teachers in 216 systems in forty-six states), Chase concluded,

1. Many teachers derive intense satisfaction from participation in educational planning, including the planning of school buildings as well as sharing in making policies in regard to instruction, working conditions, and teacher welfare.
2. Joint participation of teachers with citizens of the community in educational planning and policy making increases materially the satisfaction of teachers.
3. Too much pressure to obtain participation of teachers in educational planning can become a source of resentment and dissatisfaction.
4. In a large system the machinery for participation may become quite cumbersome and consume too much time, unless each school is given a large responsibility for planning.
5. A pretense of allowing participation is not a satisfactory substitute for genuine participation; and the feeling on the part of the teachers that participation is encouraged only for the sake of securing assent to decisions already made may produce more dissatisfaction than satisfaction.¹¹

The report goes on to indicate that extensive participation in planning can be obtained in large school systems only through decentralization or semi-autonomy. Decisions should be made "as close as possible to the point where they are put into effect." Good results are obtained when ground rules for participation in planning are clearly understood, when planning and policy decisions are decentralized as much as is possible consistent with needed coordination, and when emphasis is placed upon the "information getting" aspects of the process.

As the principal works with his staff, he is responsible for helping the group clearly understand the limits of its authority. Just as no responsible teacher would permit a group of children to plan many school days which include only play experiences, so also no responsible principal will permit a staff to make policies which are outside its realm of authority. The staff can, of course, consider and question policies established by the board of education and can request the board, through the superintendent, to reconsider established policies, but the staff must operate within the limits of its authority and responsibility. Division of labor and responsibility is not inherently undemocratic.¹²

The elementary school principal needs, particularly, to focus the attention of the group upon the need for information. Too frequently faculties make decisions based solely upon opinion. Too frequently no

¹¹ Chase, *loc. cit.*

¹² Ernest O. Melby, "Faculty Participation? Yes, but Collectivism Is Not Democracy," *Nation's Schools*, 54:35-37 (December), 1954.

attempt is made to marshal facts and information upon which an intelligent decision can be made. The principal needs to be willing himself to collect needed information.

The decisions of the staff, when made upon the basis of adequate information, should be open to review based upon further evidence. If a faculty faces the problem of crowded lunchroom facilities, for instance, it should collect specific information about the number of children served, the amount of table and floor space available, and the number of minutes needed by most of the children to eat without haste. Plans used by other schools in the city or county should be studied. Several possible alternatives which seem desirable should be considered by the group. One, or perhaps parts of several of the proposals, should be adopted. Once the new plan has been in operation sufficiently long to have become routine, a re-evaluation of the lunch program should be made. The staff should ask themselves such questions as: How is the new plan working? Did the situation previously identified improve? Have we modifications or refinements of the present plan to suggest which might bring about even greater improvement? The principal needs to lead the group not only in the establishment of policies but also in the constant evaluation of decisions already made. As teachers share in such activities, they develop a sense of true achievement—of success.

As the elementary school principal works with his staff in formulating policies, he will need to be sensitive to the feelings of others and conscious that groups need effective leadership if good results are to be obtained. The following suggestions may be helpful:

1. Assume that teachers want to participate in making decisions.
2. Whenever possible, furnish the staff with needed information in advance of the meeting at which a problem is to be discussed.
3. Encourage the establishment of policies in advance of their probable application.
4. Provide sufficient time for free and frank discussion of the facts, their implications, and the development of a number of possible lines of action. When consensus is not easily reached, postpone action unless the issue has to be resolved immediately.
5. If immediate action is required and consensus has not developed easily, summarize the discussion, presenting the various points of view, and ask for a moment of silence. A proposal which will meet with harmonious approval is likely to be put forward, or one which points the way toward consensus. As was previously suggested, rely on majority opinion when necessary.
6. Don't be afraid of calling the group's attention to ground rules. Umpires are necessary—but they don't set rules, they apply them.

7. Keep the group in an evaluative frame of mind. These things we agree we want. How well are we doing? What should we do now?

Harmonizing Differences—Resolving Conflicts

Sooner or later, when a group of people works together closely for a considerable period of time, differences of opinion arise. Once in a while, differences which begin simply and are related only to a particular problem widen until real breaches result. If such differences are ignored, the conflict may deepen and become truly disruptive. The good elementary school principal, therefore, accepts as one of his responsibilities that of harmonizing differences and resolving conflicts.

Up to a point, differences of opinion are greatly to be desired. The strength of democracy—the power of many minds—comes from harmonized differences. Intelligent minority opinion tends to produce a more capable and effective majority. But agreements need to be reached. There are various approaches to the solution of differences. First, it is possible for one person to decide. This is the method of autocracy—that used by many teachers as they work with children and by many principals as they work with teachers. Second, issues may be submitted to an interested but not personally involved tribunal or person for arbitration. In this instance both sides present their cases as ably as possible, and the decision of the arbitrator is agreed upon in advance as binding upon all participants. Third, it is possible for the majority to rule. In actual practice the majority usually modifies its position to some extent as minority opinion is expressed. Fourth, consensus may be achieved through actual resolution of the differences.¹³ In working with a staff, the elementary school principal should seek to achieve consensus resulting from real resolution of conflicting points of view.

Conflicts usually arise from complex causes. Some differences occur because words do not have the same meanings for all participants. Others result because individuals do not have the same facts or information upon which to base judgment. The resolution of such conflicts is not usually as difficult as resolving conflicts which occur because of differing values. When the leader is able to see that differences are due to terminology or facts, he usually is able to help the individuals or groups find common ground or agree to definitions and sources of information from which consensus may be developed. When, as frequently happens, conflict occurs as the result of differing values, the leader's main hope of success lies in discovering an end point or goal upon which both sides in the conflict can

¹³ See Franklyn S. Haiman, *Group Leadership and Democratic Action* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951), Chap. 9, pp. 178-196, for a more extensive discussion of resolving social conflicts.

agree and in attempting to move toward some measure of consensus concerning ways of achieving the agreed-upon goals.

To be specific in terms of elementary school problems, certain staff members may urge the principal and the rest of the staff to modify the system by which parents are informed about their children's progress in school. The teachers may feel that the system of reporting, currently in use in the school, is satisfactory for goals, but fails to indicate sufficiently whether pupils are making satisfactory progress in physical skills, planning, group membership skills, and personality development. Certain members of the faculty may, however, feel that the school's primary function is to develop intellectual skills and that, since the report cards in use give parents an adequate analysis of the child's progress in relation to intellectual growth, no change is needed. Many principals have found such differences of opinion to be almost unresolvable, because members of the group seem unwilling to change their views and the views are not harmonious.

Sometimes conflicts become even more intense within a school system when the staff of one school wishes to change procedures, but the faculties in other schools resist. Within the past few years, real progress has been made in decentralizing administration, so that several different solutions to such problems may be instituted within one unit. In Caddo Parish, Louisiana, for instance, some schools use a standard report card to indicate pupil progress. In other schools the card is supplemented by a letter twice a year. In other schools the report card is not used at all; rather, conferences are held periodically with parents, and an occasional written report is mailed to the parents of the children. One approach to the solution of problems which seem unsolvable because of differing values is, then, to permit those who wish to change to do so.

The same principle of decentralization is effective within the school. Principals may find that primary teachers wish to report progress to parents through conferences and an occasional written report. Within the same school upper-grade teachers may insist upon a standard report card to be distributed at regular intervals. Conflict may be avoided by developing two plans for the school.

When agreement needs to be reached and dual plans seem not to be desirable, the principal should attempt to secure as much agreement as possible upon the goals or ends sought. As individuals present divergent views, some measure of consensus may be established if the discussion can be kept upon the issues being considered. The leader should remember, however, that values held by individuals have developed over many years and that no sudden or lightninglike changes in values can be expected. Since what we believe is largely the result of the experiences we have had,

the principal with the long-term view will design learning experiences from which value agreement tends to result.¹⁴ As a practical operational matter, it may be necessary to rely upon majority rule for a considerable period of time; but consensus, utilizing the best ideas of all members, should always be the goal.

Haiman¹⁵ suggests several possible ways for leaders to help group members keep supercharged emotions in check during discussion of issues. Among those mentioned are rephrasing statements in an objective manner to eliminate extreme generalizations and loaded language, identifying issues which are very controversial and delaying their consideration until agreement has been reached upon those not so knotty, injecting a bit of appropriate humor to lighten tension, diverting the discussion to another point or to other persons if two or more seem to be "squaring off," and providing a break or recess until such time as members are able to attack the problem more rationally.

As the elementary school principal seeks to harmonize differences and resolve conflicts, he will need to use all the ingenuity he can muster and to demonstrate the patience commonly attributed to Job. In many instances, the following suggestions may prove helpful.

1. Accept differences of opinion as not only inevitable but also desirable.
2. Use simple, direct language and restate in simple terms contributions which are confusing or likely to be misunderstood.
3. Attempt to keep discussions on issues or problems, so that personal conflicts will be minimized.
4. Make sure that needed information is available before decisions are made.
5. Attempt to develop, as a long-range necessity, agreement on values. Most hard-to-solve conflicts result from differing conceptions of what is good.
6. Seek the good in all contributions, even those supercharged with emotion. Restate outbursts quietly to point up the positive contributions made. Frequently the leader may do this best by using a question such as "Did you mean?" or by attempting to summarize the significant points made by asking "If I understood you correctly, this is what you were saying. Is that right?"
7. Be patient, diplomatic, and generous. Accord a fair hearing for all points of view.

¹⁴ Many faculties have developed agreement upon values through the use of Cooperative Study in Elementary Education, *Evaluating the Elementary School: A Guide to Cooperative Study* (Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1951).

¹⁵ Haiman, *op. cit.*, pp. 192-195.

8. Rely on majority rule only when necessary for expediency. If a record of action is kept, parliamentary procedure after consensus has been achieved is a simple formality.
9. Adjourn the group or call for a recess if agreement seems impossible. Sleeping over problems sometimes solves them.
10. Remember that there are many ways of doing things and some variation in procedures may be desirable.
11. Get to know all members of the staff personally as well as professionally and provide them with many opportunities to get to know you. Nothing helps so much in conflict situations as friendship.

Stimulating Group Study

As the elementary school principal works with the professional staff, he needs to be interested in extending the insights and understandings of the entire group, including himself. One of the best ways is to stimulate the group to undertake some cooperative study. Many faculties have found that organized programs of child study, such as those developed under the leadership of the Institute for Child Study at the University of Maryland, stimulate much faculty growth. Other faculties have utilized more informal plans, perhaps focusing their attention upon a total school problem such as the health program and utilizing resource people in the local and nearby communities. Still other groups have begun systematic and comprehensive programs of self-evaluation. Each procedure has strengths. The faculty should, of course, participate in deciding the type of program to be undertaken.

HOW CAN INTEREST IN GROUP STUDY BE STIMULATED? Many principals wonder how it is possible to get a group of teachers sincerely interested in serious study. They report that teachers complain about overwork and underpay, and they feel that any additional load will result in dissatisfaction. Other principals rather easily interest teachers in group study and have to plan in advance for periods without group activity in order that certain members of the staff will get needed relaxation and rest. The difference is a basic one—leadership.

Teachers become stimulated to participate in group study when the situation in which they work is so challenging that the necessity for continued professional growth is evident, when the principal and other administrative officials continue to be interested in increasing their own knowledge and understanding, and when every member of the administrative staff confidently expects teachers to participate wholeheartedly in some aspect of school improvement. In some systems school officials discuss probable group projects for professional improvement, while they interview prospective teachers for employment. The positive support of

the individual is thus elicited prior to employment. In situations in which little or no group study has been undertaken previously, the superintendent may wish to establish a planning council with representatives from all schools to discuss, along with other important matters, the establishment of a policy which recognizes group study as an essential part of the teacher's responsibilities.

Within the individual school, the principal should accept as one of his responsibilities that of stimulating group work. He may wish, at the outset, to present several possibilities. He will need, of course, to assume that the teachers want to have a better school and want to solve their own problems. After free and frank discussion and after investigating several possibilities, including the use of consultants from nearby educational institutions, the group is almost sure to agree to "try it once." A few will be skeptical, and one or two may be antagonistic at first. As the group discusses the possibilities, however, consensus in favor of undertaking some group study is almost certain to develop. Teachers want to learn, and they like to learn with others.

FOCUSING ATTENTION UPON NEEDS. In helping the group determine the focus of the group study, attention should be directed to an analysis of needs in the local setting. The abiding concerns of the group certainly will need to be listed and discussed. Many suggestions, rather than a few, should initially be placed "in the hopper" for consideration. As the principal helps the group decide on the problem or problems which will absorb the group's efforts, he needs to serve much as the teacher does in planning classroom work with a group of children. He helps the group merge concerns into constellations of problems. He asks questions about availability of resource materials and persons for the various problem areas, and he guides the group to think about procedures—possible ways of attacking the problems proposed—before a decision is made. As consensus develops regarding the more fruitful possibilities, eliminations are made. The leader helps the group keep its needs and the needs of the school ever uppermost.

APPROACHING COOPERATIVE STUDY THROUGH EVALUATION. Throughout the United States, considerable concern has been directed in recent years to the evaluation of elementary schools. Stimulated in part by the evaluative program initiated by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards,¹⁶ by publication of a professional textbook,¹⁷ and by the production of numerous guides for evaluation, the movement can be considered a major development in elementary education. Many different

¹⁶ Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *Evaluative Criteria* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1950).

¹⁷ Harold G. Shane and E. T. McSwain, *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1951).

concepts concerning evaluation exist and, consequently, several approaches have been suggested. Some groups have attempted to quantify the evaluation of the program. The Texas guide for evaluation of elementary schools¹⁸ is representative of efforts directed toward that objective. Increasing emphasis is being directed to developing value judgment as the heart of evaluative activity and to establishing procedures which help a school staff become sensitive to values at work in the daily program. *Evaluating the Elementary School: A Guide to Cooperative Study*¹⁹ was developed by the Cooperative Study in Elementary Education to perform that function. Rather than accepting criteria established a priori, each staff is urged to describe actual situations—things which happen—and to analyze these situations for the values supported. No quantitative rating is given, and no check list is provided. Rather, the staff analyzes the total program in terms of values which are being supported and makes specific plans for improvement.

Many school systems and many individual elementary schools within large administrative units have found that the evaluative approach to group study and school improvement is fruitful and stimulating. Many cities and states have now developed evaluative instruments for use.²⁰ It seems apparent that this approach to group study will become more common within the next few years. Principals eager to learn more about the possibilities are urged to secure copies of the publications to which reference has been made.

IMPROVING FACULTY MEETINGS. One of the most promising ways of stimulating interest in group study is to make staff meetings professional and interesting. Many teachers regard staff meetings as almost a total waste of time. It is true that much of the information presented verbally in administrative staff meetings could be communicated to the staff more efficiently through duplicated announcements. A meeting to handle routine administrative matters may, of course, be needed occasionally. Such meetings should, normally, be comparatively short and should be announced in advance as administrative rather than professional in nature.

¹⁸ *Handbook for Self-Appraisal and Improvement of Elementary Schools* (rev. ed.; Austin, Tex.: State Department of Education, 1948).

¹⁹ Cooperative Study in Elementary Education, *loc. cit.*

²⁰ *An Instrument for Evaluation of Elementary School Practices in Utah* (Salt Lake City: State of Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1948); *Elementary School Inventory* (3rd ed.; Albany: The University of the State of New York, The State Education Department, 1941); *Guide for Study of the Elementary School* (Little Rock: State of Arkansas Department of Education, 1949-1950); *Self-Evaluation of an Elementary School* (Oklahoma City Public Schools, 1949); *Looking at Our School* (Frankfort: Kentucky State Department of Education, 1950); *Kansas Elementary School Evaluation Guide* (Topeka: Commission for the Improvement of Elementary Education in Kansas, State Department of Public Instruction, 1951); *Evaluation Handbook for Elementary Schools* (St. Louis, Mo.: Department of Instruction, St. Louis Public Schools, 1950).

If staff members are to study seriously for their own growth and the improvement of the school, time must be allotted for planning, sharing, and evaluating. To give prestige to meetings devoted to professional growth, some schools have found it advisable to begin the meetings approximately an hour before school dismissal time and to continue them for at least an hour thereafter. In some systems, classes are dismissed for this period of time. In others, parents are utilized in the classrooms in order to free the teachers for study. This latter procedure has several strengths: (1) Parents who make a definite contribution to the school program feel added responsibility for the school's improvement. (2) Since some school time is given to the professional staff meetings, teachers feel more responsibility for participating actively. (3) Parents begin to recognize the difficulties faced by teachers and become vocal supporters of movements for improved facilities. (4) Children are available and can be utilized in the study sessions as needed. Approval for such a plan should, of course, be obtained in advance from the superintendent of schools. When a significant block of time, such as the two-hour period mentioned above, is devoted to professional staff meetings, a meeting every two weeks should provide sufficient opportunity for the staff to make important progress within a year's time.

The status leader, the principal, should be particularly interested in making sure that the concept of functional leadership is supported in professional staff meetings. While, in many instances, he will need to serve as the discussion leader as the group identifies its concerns and begins to make plans for the year's work, he should, nevertheless, help the group identify those individuals best suited by talent, experience, and aptitude to furnish leadership in succeeding meetings. Over the period of from two to three years, many members of the staff should have merited and accepted responsibilities for leadership. Usurpation of leadership responsibilities by the principal is almost sure to result in resistance from the staff.

PROVIDING OTHER OPPORTUNITIES. Enriching the study activities should be a continuing concern of the principal. In addition to helping locate and obtain consultants, the principal can alert teachers to conferences and professional meetings within easy driving distance of the school. It is desirable for teachers to have opportunities to participate in conferences during the school year, especially those which are closely related to the study concerns of the group. If the district does not have funds appropriated for substitute teachers for such occasions, the principal and perhaps parents can serve.

Many colleges and universities are now providing workshops during the summer months so that members of a faculty may work together on a

particular problem. Some institutions provide off-campus workshops during the regular year, making these opportunities even more timely. Teachers usually participate in such activities during evening hours or on Saturdays, and credit is optional. If the school is located within the effective service area of a college or university which has an active department of elementary education, it may be desirable for the principal to investigate possibilities of combining group study with collegiate work. Safeguards should be established by the local staff, however, to make sure that the focus of attention is on their problems—not on the lecture notes of a college professor.

As indicated in Chapter 1, the elementary school principal has responsibility for providing leadership which focuses the group's attention on concerns which are important to them. He has continuing responsibility for helping the group decide which problems are of greater or lesser significance and for drafting programs of action leading to solution of the problems. Procedures for helping groups identify, rank, and tackle their problems cannot be standardized and followed slavishly, because situations vary so greatly. Some faculties may have had several years when little was done except identification of problems, and they are, consequently, eager to solve some. In the main, however, principals may find that the following suggestions will be of assistance:

1. Assume that teachers are interested in their own professional growth and in the improvement of the school program.
2. Provide school time for part of the professional staff meetings. Use parents as relief teachers, or dismiss school early.
3. Keep routine administrative matters separate from professional staff meetings. Use duplicated materials for most announcements.
4. Serve as discussion leader in the early stages of the group's work, unless the staff has already designated one of its members to provide such leadership.
5. Investigate and perhaps use the self-evaluative approach as a way of identifying significant problems.
6. Extend the list of problems until many choices are available and the group seems to feel that most significant problems have been identified.
7. Group the problems into constellations or areas.
8. Discuss probable methods of attack, resources available, and possible successes, prior to decision making.
9. Keep a record of all problems identified, but develop consensus on those which are of immediate importance and greatest need.
10. Obtain consultant help from supervisors, other principals and teach-

ers in the system, and the state department of education, as problems are identified and plans made.

11. Contact nearby colleges and universities to determine the help they are able to provide in solving problems the staff has identified.

Stimulating Individual Study

Although much of a principal's time in providing staff leadership will be directed to groups of teachers and to the staff as a whole, growth on the part of the individual teachers is also basic for improvement of the total school program. Just as the capable teacher provides opportunities for pupils to follow their individual interests and develop their talents while cooperating with group endeavors, so also the principal stimulates teachers to develop and pursue a program of personal development along with the group study.

Elementary school principals can stimulate teachers to undertake study in several ways. As teachers bring problems of individual children or of instruction to the principal, he can guide the teacher to helpful resources—professional magazines,²¹ professional books, current nonprofessional magazines, nonprofessional books, human and natural resources of the community, and the like. If the principal reads widely himself and has magazines and professional books attractively displayed in his office and in the teachers' lounge, much more reading is apt to be done by the staff. The principal should regard himself as a resource specialist when teachers need help. He should make every possible effort, including visits to nearby professional libraries, to obtain needed information and materials.

In addition to helping teachers in ways indicated above, the principal may help teachers plan and make visits to other schools, industries in the community, and homes of children. He may counsel with teachers concerning summer school attendance, and should, in such instances, be more than a prejudiced alumnus of a particular institution. He should attempt to learn as much as possible about the colleges and universities in his own state and about other regional and national centers which offer outstanding programs often not available closer to home. He may discuss with teachers not planning to attend summer school other experiences which will contribute to their personal and professional development, such as travel, work other than teaching, and a program of individual reading.

It seems obvious that a principal who is to stimulate others to grow per-

²¹ The professional library of each elementary school should certainly include current issues of *Childhood Education*, *Educational Leadership*, *National Elementary Principal*, *Elementary School Journal*, *Elementary English*, *Social Education*, *NEA Journal*, and the journal of the state education association.

sonally and professionally must do so himself. In addition to professional magazines and books, the principal should work at the job of keeping informed about current happenings—political and cultural. One who hasn't bumped into an idea for years is not likely to steer another person toward one! ²²

Among the many ways of stimulating teachers to undertake planned or incidental study, the following activities have been successfully used by many elementary school principals.

1. Institute a faculty book club. Each person contributes the cost of one nonprofessional book each year. The purchased books are circulated on schedule to each faculty member and are auctioned to the highest bidder at the close of the school year. Proceeds support, in part, the professional library.
2. Pool the professional libraries of staff members, including membership in professional organizations and subscriptions to magazines, so that for the same money greater help will be available.
3. Attempt to secure school funds for improving the professional library of the school. Enrich and round out what is obtained from pooling faculty-owned materials.
4. Display magazines and books attractively in office and lounge.
5. Read widely—professionally and culturally. Discuss what you have read with others. Pass along to them books and articles which have interested you.
6. Use available library resources extensively. Most communities provide many opportunities which are not utilized.
7. Make a real effort to find materials which will be of help whenever a teacher comes to you with a problem.

Balancing Work and Rest

As the elementary school principal works with his staff in ways which bring about school improvement, he must constantly be aware of the need for rest, relaxation, and fun. A period of intense effort directed toward solving a school problem should normally be followed by a period of comparative quiet. A rhythm between hard work and comparative calm needs to be established. Even when the need for balance is recognized, however, it is frequently difficult to determine just when group activity should be relaxed. If evaluation is a constant part of the group's en-

²² While in no sense of the word wishing to prescribe the reading habits of elementary school principals, the authors suggest that a weekly news magazine, a literary magazine such as the *Saturday Review* or *Atlantic Monthly*, a women's magazine, a home magazine, and a special interest magazine such as the *National Geographic* would provide a balanced reading diet of nonprofessional matter for most elementary school principals.

deavors, need for rest will undoubtedly be voiced or implied by some members of the group. While the momentum of group endeavors should not be stopped prior to the achievement of significant goals, these objectives are not likely to be reached when the group is exhausted. The leader needs, therefore, to keep his finger on the pulse of the group. A moratorium of a month sometimes saves two or three months in over-all time.

PLANNING RECREATION TOGETHER. Most faculty groups have discovered that they get to know each other better and come to understand the other person's point of view more easily if they participate in informal, non-professional activities. The principal may properly take the lead in helping plan recreation in which the whole group participates. If the staff is made up of young people, they may wish to have an evening of folk or social dancing once or twice a month. Some staffs enjoy volleyball, table tennis, checkers, dominoes, bridge, canasta, and other physical and mental games. Picnics during the fall and spring months are very popular with many groups. As camping facilities are improved throughout the United States, many staffs will find that a week end spent among colleagues will pay substantial dividends.

PROVIDING A FACULTY LOUNGE. A place where teachers can relax for a few moments during the day is one of the most necessary rooms in elementary schools. Teachers need a time during the day, moreover, when they are relieved of responsibilities for children. Principals having troubles with certain staff members who react violently to the normal behavior of children—those who erupt like volcanoes at slight cause—will find that time away from the group will probably help the teacher more than any other procedure.

Many plans are in operation throughout the country to provide some relief for the classroom teacher. Probably the most common practice is to employ special teachers for creative arts, including graphic and plastic arts, music, dance, and drama. In some schools the play activities of children are directed by a special person. In other schools two or more groups are combined under the direction of one of the teachers for a short time—possibly for play or storytelling or music. One of the best ways of providing a break for the teacher is to enlist the aid of parents and upper-grade children in supervising a rest period immediately after lunch. In most classrooms this period is one in which quiet music is played or a story is read—activities which can be easily supervised by nonprofessional personnel. If the principal will work with parents and older pupils, occasionally dropping by to see that everything is proceeding smoothly, this method will work. Unless teachers have a place to go where they can relax, however, time away from the children will be of doubtful value.

Elementary school principals may find that some of the following ideas

related to the need for rest and relaxation can be used in the local situation:

1. Keep evaluation as the heart of staff improvement and school improvement programs. Be alert for evidences of strain, weariness, and fatigue.
2. When a rest seems to be needed, postpone group effort for a month or two.
3. Provide some play along with work, and attempt to discover some activities that interest the whole staff.
4. Have a short social period prior to staff meetings if the group decides to hold the meetings in the afternoon.
5. If the school does not have a faculty lounge, look around for some little-used space. Maybe the stage of the auditorium can be used. There may be storage space which could be converted to serve both functions. Find some space and use it.
6. Plan with the teachers so that each has at least fifteen minutes away from the children near the middle of the day.
7. Occasionally bring in some outside person, who is interested in the problems being considered by the group, to provide additional stimulation.
8. Plan for recreational activities of the group as carefully as you plan for work activities.

Developing Leaders in the Group

Throughout Chapter 1 and in the earlier sections of this chapter, considerable emphasis has been given to the responsibility of the principal for developing leadership in others. The problems which face the principal in this respect center primarily in developing understanding and allegiance to the idea of "functional" leadership and in creating situations which will result in "readiness" for leadership. While the principal may be the person best suited by experience and personality to serve as discussion leader during sessions devoted to identifying problems, he may not serve nearly as effectively when a particular problem is occupying the group's attention. Moreover, a teacher who is qualified to serve as leader while the group works to improve the health program may not be able to provide effective leadership when the group is interested in improving the teaching of creative art. Leaders should change as jobs change—as the needs of the group change. The principal should be an active participant in all group endeavors. He should be willing to do at least his share of the menial jobs connected with group work. He should serve as the leader when, and only when, he is the best person available.

If leaders are to emerge from the group, the right atmosphere or climate

must pervade the school. If teachers are insecure, disturbed about their jobs, afraid of "the office," or fearful of ratings, the chances of leaders emerging from the group are slight. If, on the other hand, teachers are so secure they have almost ceased to care about growth or school improvement, the chances of emerging leadership are also slight. Security balanced with adventure—freedom from fear coupled with challenge—supply the needed elements for the development of leadership within the group.

As the staff begins to work together in improving the elementary school, it is particularly important that planning be done so specifically that it gets down to the "who" level. Frequently when groups meet to discuss problems, desirable solutions are proposed, and everyone feels sure that the days ahead are going to be better. But frequently, also, groups do not designate the persons responsible for carrying out the wishes of the group. If more facts are needed, individuals or a small group need to be selected to obtain them. If proposals which require action on the part of each teacher have been made, someone or a group should be given responsibility for reminding each staff member of his commitment and of the deadline for carrying out his part of the job. If a new undertaking is proposed or a procedure modified, individuals must understand who is to do what and when. As planning gets down to the "who" level, individuals will have more opportunity to lead, since each person will know what is expected of him.

In Chapter 1, several responsibilities of democratic leaders were enumerated, including releasing, developing, and using the talents of the total staff; developing the leadership potential in others; stimulating each co-worker to catch a vision of a personal potential not previously perceived; and building understanding of the relations between democratic leaders and followers. As the elementary school principal seeks to carry out such responsibilities, so that the leadership potential which exists in the group will be utilized, he may find the following suggestions helpful:

1. Recognize that other members of the staff are able, eager, and probably can become effective leaders.
2. Support the idea of functional leadership.
3. Concentrate upon developing a school climate which provides security and challenge for each teacher.
4. Accept your share of the work, and don't be afraid of doing more than that. As busy as you are, you probably have more time than most of your teachers.
5. Insist upon definite acceptance of responsibility whenever the group decides to act.
6. Don't be afraid that someone will work you out of a job. As your

staff begins to function effectively, members will work themselves into many jobs—important ones—and you will be busier than ever.

7. Encourage staff members to accept leadership roles when you know they have the necessary qualities to provide the leadership needed. Don't insist; just encourage.

8. Have a helping hand ready whenever a member of the group accepts responsibilities which are "beyond the usual." Work hard to make sure that leadership experiences are successful ones.

9. Give sincere praise and recognition to the staff and to individual members of it. Make sure that the superintendent knows what is going on, and that teachers know he knows.

Relating Techniques to Problems

"You do not find the length of a table with a thermometer or the temperature of a room with a ruler."²³ Techniques which are appropriate to the problem have to be used; procedures which are effective have to be utilized. Sometimes faculties attempt to wash all their laundry with the same cake of soap. It doesn't work. As the principal works with the professional staff, one of his most important responsibilities is that of providing technical knowledge—know-how. If information about an individual child is needed, the principal should know how to help the teacher obtain it or locate others who can help. If knowledge about the community, the homes, available instructional materials, space utilization, or techniques of teaching is required, the principal should know how to get it. The technique adopted should be appropriate to the problems confronted.

There are many ways to attack problems confronting an elementary school staff. Many times, group discussion will develop consensus and satisfactory solutions. Frequently discussion will be improved if members of the group know in advance what is to be discussed. Sometimes groups need to postpone consideration of problems until each member of the group has had an opportunity to study the problem and develop possible solutions. Many faculties have found it desirable to ask subgroups to consider certain aspects of a problem and report their recommendations to the total group for action. The value of the outside consultant has also been demonstrated, as a staff thinks about school improvement; but decisions should, of course, be the responsibility of the staff—not the consultant. Parents and children usually have contributions to make.

Whatever the problem, the staff needs to be encouraged to adopt procedures and techniques which are likely to be successful in solving it. The

²³ Cooperative Study in Elementary Education, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

principal should know appropriate techniques and should be eager to help the staff select those which promise the greatest measure of success. He should also know to whom to turn for assistance.²⁴ Unless the principal has a technical mastery of the field of elementary education, including child growth and development, community study, curriculum, teacher education, research, and administration, it will be difficult to adopt suitable techniques for solving the problems identified by the group without outside assistance.

As a group begins to work on problems, it is quite possible that a number of approaches may be tried before something truly promising is developed. The principal may wish to be guided by some of the following ideas. They should not be considered exact or final answers to the problems, but they may be suggestive:

1. Utilize free, frank discussions, based upon adequate information and conducted without extreme time pressures, to secure suggestions from the group concerning possible ways of working.
2. Furnish needed data to individual staff members prior to discussion meetings whenever possible.
3. Assist the group in determining whether additional information is needed and how to obtain it.
4. Help the group develop tentative hypotheses, which will need to be tested in action.
5. Secure the consultative help of qualified resource persons whenever the need for such assistance is recognized by the group.
6. Visit other schools within easy driving distance to learn how other staffs are solving similar problems. Take teachers and, in some instances, parents and children with you.

Encouraging Experimentation

Many problems faced by teachers can be solved satisfactorily only by research directed to the problem in the local school. Many practices which have come to be accepted as standard operating procedure have not been subjected to careful study. Answers have not been developed concerning "what to do" and "how to do" in many classroom situations. Teachers have to do what they feel is best at the moment, but they should be encouraged to add to our storehouse of knowledge by "trying things out" to see what works best. The cooperative research emphasis, being supported nationally by such groups as the Association for Supervision and Cur-

²⁴ Ways of developing cooperative action research are described in Stephen M. Corey, *Action Research to Improve School Practices* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953).

riculum Development, is designed to encourage experimentation at the local level. Certainly one of the important jobs of the elementary school principal is to support those teachers who are eager to try something new, to urge them to keep careful records of their efforts, and to encourage other staff members confronted with problems to adopt the experimental approach.

Earlier in this chapter it was indicated that security is necessary if leaders are to develop within the group. Certainly, also, teachers must feel that the principal will support them, before they will be willing to undertake much experimentation. Teachers are frequently quite reluctant to try something different, because they know that some parents may question the new approach or because they wonder, frankly, whether the proposal will really work. Alice Miel ²⁵ and her associates have found that there are two necessary qualities for getting started with experimentation: (1) a desire to try new ways of working, and (2) courage to start operating in new ways. The elementary school principal can help teachers develop both of these qualities. Perhaps his greatest concern should be directed to the second—the development of courage—for when teachers are unafraid to try, desires which have been sublimated for many years will be discovered.

Responsibilities of the leader for developing a permissive yet stimulating environment and for helping the group raise its "sights" concerning what can be accomplished were enumerated in Chapter 1. There is little doubt that such conditions are of crucial importance if significant experimentation is to be undertaken. Corey has identified six "conditions favorable to action research":

- Freedom to admit limitations
- Opportunities to invent
- Encouragement to "try it out"
- Improvement in methods of group work
- Concern with obtaining evidence
- Time and resources for experimentation ²⁶

Among the suggestions which can be made to principals eager to encourage teachers to experiment are the following:

1. Plan with teachers prior to experimentation and make sure that the superintendent, supervisors, and parents understand what is being undertaken. Whenever possible, involve parents and supervisors in the experimentation.

²⁵ Alice Miel and Associates, *Cooperative Procedures in Learning* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952), p. 258.

²⁶ Corey, *op. cit.*, Chap. 4, pp. 86-106.

2. Help teachers see that finding out those things which do *not* work is equally as important as discovering those procedures which do.
3. Make sure teachers understand that you recognize that, at first, the new way of doing may not be as satisfactory as the old.
4. Work with teachers as they are experimenting. Be eager to visit the classroom when the teacher feels secure enough in the new procedures to have you there; look for and find helpful suggestions in the literature of elementary education which may contribute to what the teacher is attempting to do; praise and support what is being tried, especially when the teacher is discouraged and ready to "throw in the sponge."
5. Encourage teachers who are trying new ways of proceeding to discuss them with other members of the staff. Many minds directed to a problem help bring forth ideas which are usable and practical.
6. Keep careful records of the procedures used and the results. Furnish the teacher with secretarial help, if at all possible.
7. Evaluate continually. Pupils and parents should certainly be active participants in the evaluation.
8. Make sure that the teacher gets recognition in the community or in professional magazines when significant results which are newsworthy are obtained.

SUMMARY

Throughout this chapter, the importance of the leadership role of the elementary school principal has been emphasized, particularly as it relates to the professional staff—the teachers. Nine specific responsibilities of the elementary school principal which may serve as basic guides for staff leadership were identified.

1. *The elementary school principal's first and continuing challenge is to develop a staff with high morale.* To accomplish this goal, the principal should surround the staff with an atmosphere of approval, make sure that teachers know what they need to know about the job in order to function effectively, be consistent in behavior, provide many opportunities for participation and acceptance of responsibility, and hold all decisions subject to review.
2. *The principal should lead the staff in formulating school policies cooperatively.* Planning and policy decisions should be decentralized as greatly as is possible consistent with needed coordination within the school system. Much planning, therefore, should be done by the staff of the individual school. Policy formation includes at least the following steps: defining objectives, obtaining needed information or facts, analyzing

data, making decisions, and continually evaluating the effectiveness and desirability of policies.

3. *The principal should work to harmonize differences and to resolve conflicts among members of the staff.* As he works with the staff, the principal will seek to keep discussions on issues or problems—not on personalities—to extract good from all contributions, to develop agreement on values, and to build firm friendships.

4. *The principal should stimulate the staff to undertake some cooperative projects for professional growth.* To stimulate interest in study, the principal himself must be interested; the entire administrative staff of the system needs to assume that all teachers will participate enthusiastically; and the working situation must be so challenging that the necessity for continued professional growth is clearly evident. The principal needs to help focus group effort upon needs. Cooperative evaluative procedures provide one successful way of stimulating faculty growth.

5. *The growth of the individual teacher, personally and professionally, must be a concern of the elementary school principal.* To stimulate individual growth, the principal can make professional and nonprofessional magazines and books available; help plan visits to community and regional resources, encourage home visits and accompany staff members on some of them, establish book clubs, read widely himself, and keep abreast of cultural and educational opportunities in the local and nearby communities.

6. *The principal should make sure that a balance between work and rest is maintained.* Planned recreation for the faculty, a lounge where teachers may relax, and a short period without responsibilities for children will help maintain a desirable balance. When evidence of fatigue appears, the principal should insist that the staff postpone their study activities for a month or two.

7. *Leaders should be developed within the staff.* Opportunities for persons to lead need to be created, and a climate which provides security and challenge needs to be developed, so that individuals will want to lead. Recognition and praise for services to the group need to be given those who accept responsibilities; yet the dangers inherent in giving praise only to certain individuals need to be recognized.

8. *The principal should help the staff use techniques which are appropriate to the problems confronted.* Free, frank discussion, based upon adequate information and leading to consensus, usually is an effective technique for the staff to use in arriving at decisions. The principal should make sure that decisions are not made until adequate facts are known. He should encourage and help individuals and the group to develop or adopt

techniques which will enable them to obtain needed data, calling on others for assistance as needed.

9. *Experimentation should be encouraged.* A desire to try new ways and courage to undertake something different are necessary if experimentation is to be done. The principal should provide support for teachers who have the desire to experiment. Careful plans should be made, they should be discussed with parents, and complete records should be kept.

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDY

1. The faculty of Elliott School is eager to change the physical education program so that recesses will be eliminated and each teacher will go with his group to the playground when some physical activity seems to be needed. Mr. Davis, the principal, had been working with the staff as it came to this decision, but is now faced with the problem of convincing the central administrative authorities that such a plan is feasible. What steps do you believe Mr. Davis should take?

2. Mr. Pascarella recently accepted the principalship of Terrace Heights Elementary School. The building is fairly modern, and equipment is adequate. He finds, as he begins to work with the staff, that two factions exist—one that supports the superintendent of schools and his program, and one that seems to be disgruntled about administrative practices in general and especially about those which had been followed under the former principal. Which of the following procedures do you think Mr. Pascarella should follow? Justify your selection. Suggest other possibilities which seem promising.

- (a) Call the disgruntled group together and attempt to discover the source of their dissatisfaction.
- (b) Ignore the factions and attempt to get the total group interested in working on a common project.
- (c) Interview individually each member of the staff and attempt to discover his hopes, past successes, and frustrations.
- (d) Tell the staff members that he expects unquestioning loyalty from them and, in return, they will have his cooperation and support.
- (e) Warn the staff members that unless they begin to work together as a team he will ask the superintendent of schools to transfer the dissident members at the end of the school year.
- (f) Entertain the staff in his home—at first as a total group and then in twos and threes.
- (g) Establish a visitation program, posting a schedule in advance, to identify practices worthy of praise and those which should be modified.
- (h) Interview the former principal in order to identify the ringleaders of the factious group.

3. At Greenhaven Elementary School an addition of four classrooms has been in construction for most of the school year. In April, Mr. McGregor, the principal, suggests to the staff that it might be well for them to plan how they will orient the new teachers to Greenhaven and to the school in September. List practices which you would support.

4. The faculty of Edison School, after considerable discussion, decided to hold its professional staff meetings at 7:30 A.M. on alternate Wednesdays. The first meeting at that hour found everyone present on time, but at the second and third meetings two staff members arrived at 7:55. What do you think the principal should do?

5. Most of the teachers at Exeter Elementary School are alert and stimulating individuals, who read widely and keep up with professional developments. Two of the teachers, however, have resisted all of Mr. Heath's attempts to arouse their interests. Among the steps Mr. Heath has already taken are establishing a professional library in the school, placing in the teachers' lounge a rack on which current professional magazines are attractively displayed, and calling specific articles to the attention of the teachers in conversations before and after school. Should he give up or try something else? What would you suggest that he do?

6. Mr. Williams wants to give members of his staff opportunity to develop their ability to the fullest. Two of his teachers are especially able, he believes, and he would like to provide opportunity for them to accept an increasing amount of responsibility for leadership so that they will be ready for principalships when vacancies occur. He proceeds to carry out his idea only to find out that two undesirable things occur: other members of the staff notice the favored position of the two and start talking about them; one of the two teachers begins to assume more responsibility than Mr. Williams believes he should. Were his objectives valid? If so, how could Mr. Williams have proceeded in order to insure success of his plans?

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

- American Association of School Administrators, *Staff Relations in School Administration*. Thirty-third Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1955.
- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Cooperation: Principles and Practices*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1939.
- , *Group Processes in Supervision*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948.
- , *Instructional Leadership in Small Schools*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1951.
- Chase, Stuart, *Roads to Agreement*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951.
- Corey, Stephen M., *Action Research to Improve School Practices*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953.
- Elsbree, Willard S., and Harold J. McNally, *Elementary School Administration and Supervision*. New York: American Book Company, 1951.

- Gardner, Burleigh B., *Human Relations in Industry*. Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1948.
- Haiman, Franklyn S., *Group Leadership and Democratic Action*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951.
- Hoslett, Schuyler Dean, ed., *Human Factors in Management*. Rev. ed.; New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951.
- Lewin, Kurt, *Resolving Social Conflicts*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1948.
- Melby, Ernest O., "Faculty Participation? Yes, but Collectivism is Not Democracy," *Nation's Schools*, 54:35-37 (December), 1954.
- Roethlisberger, F. J., *Management and Morale*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1941.
- Wiles, Kimball, *Supervision for Better Schools*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950.
- Yauch, Wilbur A., *Improving Human Relations in School Administration*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949.

5~

Leadership in Curriculum Planning and Program Development

PROBABLY NO ASPECT of educational endeavor has received more attention—as measured by words written about it—than the curriculum. Many fine books are available and should be in the professional libraries of elementary schools.¹ Principals should certainly be familiar with the available literature and aware of the differing positions or beliefs which may be intelligently supported by theorists and by practicing teachers.

One of the problems which a principal has to face, as he marshals the resources of the staff and community in order to provide good learning experiences for children, is that conceptions of the meaning of the word "curriculum" vary considerably. One commonly accepted definition of the curriculum is that it includes all the experiences provided for children under the guidance of the school. This definition focuses attention upon services provided by cafeteria workers, custodians, and bus drivers as important factors in the total effect of the school's functioning. The *planned instructional program*, comprising the activities in which children participate under the direction of the teacher, is the most important segment of the curriculum—but the totality must be considered if the school is to achieve its goals.

Another view is that the curriculum must be defined much more specifically than has been common in recent years. This view questions whether an experience on a school bus is part of the curriculum, although what happens may affect profoundly how children react in the classroom.

¹ See the bibliography at the end of the chapter.

What happens during the lunch period in the school cafeteria is therefore not automatically part of the curriculum; it becomes part of the curriculum only when what goes on there is specifically incorporated into the children's learning activities by the direct planning of the total school faculty or by the classroom teacher. According to this concept of the curriculum, consideration must be given to improving the school cafeteria or the transportation system; but time and effort spent in such endeavors are not necessarily curriculum planning or program development.

Many curriculum workers would insist that there are no fine lines of demarcation between what is and what is not properly classified as curricular. But elementary school principals generally recognize that the most significant segment of the curriculum is that planned portion of the school day which is designed to develop skills of learning and behavior consistent with democratic values. We all recognize that some experiences provided by the school are not and cannot be planned in advance; that some learning experiences provided by the school are primarily the responsibility of persons other than teachers; that some learning experiences are controlled by the principal; that buildings, and grounds, and equipment determine to a considerable extent the learning environment and, as a result, what is learned; that some learning experiences provided by the teachers, such as a field trip, do not occur at the school.

A school staff which seeks to undertake curriculum planning and program improvement must ultimately consider all the experiences the school provides; but, because of its central importance, most attention should be given to classroom instruction. How understanding of the number system is developed, how children are taught to read and what they are guided to read, what skills and understandings related to social living are developed, and what is learned about health and safety—such concerns represent the central focus of curriculum planning and program development. Of course, the staff will need to give consideration to the books used, the length of the school day, the activities scheduled, and the methods which teachers employ. And, in addition, the staff will need to look critically at the classroom environment—since dirty walls, scarred furniture, and cluttered work spaces also affect learning. While particular aspects of the totality will need to be studied at a particular time, it is the over-all program which must concern the staff so that the planned instructional program will function most effectively.

BASIC ISSUES AND PROBLEMS

Most important curriculum issues and problems can be grouped under three headings. Answers must be found—will be found—in every elementary school to three questions: (1) What should be taught, and who should

decide? (2) How can a desirable balance be maintained between individual and group welfare? (3) How should learning experiences be organized? It would be comforting to have clear-cut, definitive answers to these three questions—and there are those among us who have what they believe to be the final word concerning them. The authors have firm convictions, growing out of many years of teaching service, regarding these basic problems; and, along with most elementary school staffs, they are not in total agreement regarding solutions. Such a situation, we feel, is the basic strength of American education—the strength that comes from honest differences of opinion freely expressed and the willingness to attempt to find sufficient areas of agreement that unity with diversity is achieved. The hope is expressed that the discussion of these problems in the next few pages will open up for principals some of the basic issues and will provide a sharpened awareness of the need to explore with co-workers and parents possible answers, which will result in effective education for boys and girls.

What Should Be Taught? Who Should Decide?

One of the hardest questions professional educators have to answer is "What should be taught?" Pressure is rather consistently brought to bear upon a school staff concerning this question, because almost every parent seems to have—and rightly so—a conception of what his child should learn. Some persons want only the traditional three R's taught by the schools. Others want an enriched program which encompasses art and music. There is desire on the part of some parents for sex education to be provided in public schools, while other parents are vocal opponents of anything remotely associated with sex. Religious instruction has been in the past, and is almost sure to be in the future, a center of controversy. There are those educators who propose that the curriculum should be designed to bring about "deliberate social reconstruction that will lead to a new cultural synthesis."² Other educators suggest that what is wrong—and they are sure that something is—has come about because the school has lost its age-old concern for intellectuality and the education of those few individuals really able to profit from study, and has become all things to all men.³ Some organized groups with particular axes to grind seem at

² B. Othanel Smith, W. O. Stanley, and J. H. Shores, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development* (Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Company, 1959), p. 724.

³ Mortimer B. Smith, *And Madly Teach* (Chicago: Henry Regnery Co., 1949); Bernard I. Bell, *Crisis in Education* (New York: Whittlesey House, 1949); Arthur E. Bestor, *Educational Wastelands: The Retreat from Learning in Our Public Schools* (Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois Press, 1953); Albert Lynd, *Quackery in the Public Schools* (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1953); and Robert M. Hutchins, *The Conflict in Education in a Democratic Society* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953).

times to sharpen them on distortions or perhaps even deliberate falsifications.⁴

Even when agreement can be reached about important goals, lack of consensus exists concerning what should be taught to achieve them.⁵ It is probable, for instance, that all parents and teachers could agree that children need to learn to read well. The same measure of agreement seems not to be achievable on the place of phonetic analysis in the whole process of reading, even though much research has been directed to a determination of its value. Educators agree that children should learn how to spell words accurately—but which words? In the process of teaching children how to spell, should attention be called to “hard spots”? Should rules be taught? Should lists be used? Many problems of similar nature exist.

SHOULD SCHOOLS SEEK MERELY TO MAINTAIN THE STATUS QUO? Perhaps the most basic issue of all those raised by curriculum workers concerns the social functions of the school. Is it the function of the school in society to help bring about orderly change and improvement of the culture; or conversely, is it the school's responsibility to teach that all which now exists is good, including war, cycles of depression and prosperity, slums, and unequal opportunities for economic and social advancement?

It seems apparent that the school, as an institution developed by the adults of society to teach the young, has and must assume responsibility, along with other institutions, for teaching the values which undergird the social order. The question then becomes “Which values shall be taught?” or, to be even more explicit, “Whose values shall be taught?” No simple answer can be provided for such a complex problem. Those values which pervade the highest and noblest expressions of the human mind and spirit and which are commonly accepted certainly should be supported. The Educational Policies Commission recently identified the following ten values as those which the public schools in the United States should teach:

Human Personality—The Basic Value
Moral Responsibility
Institutions as the Servants of Men
Common Consent
Devotion to Truth
Respect for Excellence

⁴ See “Meeting the Attacks on Education,” *Progressive Education*, 29:65-122 (January), 1952; and Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Forces Affecting American Education* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1953).

⁵ C. Winfield Scott and C. M. Hill, *Public Education under Criticism* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954) presents under one cover a symposium of arguments pro and con regarding schools. See also Paul Woodring, *Let's Talk Sense about Our Schools* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953).

Moral Equality
Brotherhood
The Pursuit of Happiness
Spiritual Enrichment⁶

To develop in the minds and hearts of youngsters a deep and abiding affection for these basic values implies that the long struggle to improve living conditions for all men is not finished and completed. At the same time, youngsters need to be taught that progress toward more perfect realization of our values needs to be made within the value framework. Each generation needs to learn that peaceful change, resulting from cooperative effort intelligently directed to solving problems in such a way that respect for the individual is enhanced, has proved to be the best method yet devised for achieving good living conditions for all men. The material, intellectual, social, and spiritual achievements which have resulted from political democracy should be emphasized. The vitality of government provided through representatives chosen at free elections needs to be taught, and commitment to the progressive improvement of democracy should be developed. In order to achieve such goals, children will need to have experiences in applying the methods of intelligent inquiry to all aspects of their living. Each generation needs to learn to discriminate between myths, which restrict the progress of man because they have not been subjected to critical examination, and those values that have resulted from intelligent efforts by man to clarify his relations with other men and with his environment. Children will become truly effective citizens in a democracy as they are freed from the restrictions that result when people accept without criticism the ways of life that have been handed down from the past.

WHAT RELATION SHOULD EXIST BETWEEN OUT-OF-SCHOOL AND IN-SCHOOL EXPERIENCES? A few generations ago, little or no attempt was made to relate life outside the school to activities and learning experiences provided at school. Stories abound, in the history of education, concerning the stern nature of the instructor and the disinterested mien of the scholars of the day. These stories almost inevitably are coupled with the en- thusiastic joy and abandon with which the final bell—the invitation to freedom—was greeted. School was different from life, and what was learned was at best only remotely related to interests, needs, and problems of the learners. There seems to be little doubt, however, that the truly creative teachers of the past, as of the present, merged living and learning. While much of the former tradition still exists in elementary

⁶ Educational Policies Commission, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1951). See also the discussion in Chap. 7, pp. 176-179.

schools round the world, the problems of the community and the interests of children are increasingly being accepted as worthy of attention by the school. As school life spills over and influences home and community life and to the degree that the reverse is true, so that all learning experiences provided for children are harmonious and consistent, an effective educational program exists.⁷

WHO SHOULD PARTICIPATE IN CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT? One of the knottiest problems facing the professional staff of an elementary school is related to participation in making curricular decisions. Certainly most educators would agree today that many decisions need to be made by children under the guidance of teachers.⁸ There is little doubt, also, that parents should participate in curriculum improvement.⁹ The problem which the professional staff faces is determining the extent of parent and pupil participation. In other words, should matters which require professional knowledge be turned over to children and parents, who may or may not have sufficient background to make effective decisions? Should professional educators relinquish their responsibilities for leadership in curriculum improvement?

Admittedly, representatives of pressure groups have attempted in specific instances to push through changes in the curriculum; nevertheless, the only effective approach to curriculum improvement utilizes the ideas of many people. School systems have found that planning councils with cross-sectional representation from the community, including children, are of significant help in curriculum improvement endeavors.¹⁰ Such groups are advisory in nature, with final decisions made and responsibilities accepted by the board of education and the professional staff. Planning councils frequently invite recognized authorities to meet and think with them about proposals which have been made. The expert in curriculum theory and practice makes the same contribution to the deliberations of the group that an expert in traffic flow and control might make to a city council as it considers parking and transportation problems. The opinion of the expert is sought. He expresses it in detail, answers questions which members of the group may have, and suggests several possible lines of action. The planning council may or may not eventually accept one or more of the proposals made by the expert. The

⁷ Paul R. Hanna and Robert A. Naslund, "The Community School Defined," in National Society for the Study of Education, *The Community School* (Fifty-second Yearbook; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953), Part III, Chap. 4.

⁸ For an excellent description and analysis of teacher-pupil planning, see Alice Miel and Associates, *Cooperative Procedures in Learning* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952).

⁹ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Laymen Help Plan the Curriculum* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1946).

¹⁰ National Society for the Study of Education, *Citizen Cooperation for Better Public Schools* (Fifty-third Yearbook; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954), Part I.

knowledge upon which final proposals are based, however, is bound to be greater.

Similar techniques are effective at the individual school level. Experience has shown that when parents and children participate in councils which consider school improvement problems and when the councils have adequate representation from the professional staff, changes are more easily made and less criticism of the program results. The elementary school principal has a tremendous responsibility for providing leadership in such groups. He is an acknowledged status leader, the person with over-all responsibility for the effectiveness of the school's program. He will help set the climate—the emotional tone—of the meetings. Whether the council becomes a constructive force for good, or deteriorates into a gripe session for disgruntled parents or a platform for special interest groups, depends to a considerable extent upon his skill as a leader.

In the past, many decisions regarding curriculum changes have been made by those in authority—either superintendents, supervisors or principals—and have been transmitted to teachers. Parents have been notified of the changes. The research on leadership, cited in Chapters 1 and 4, indicates that change is more easily managed when those affected by the new policy at least know about it in advance. When those involved actually *participate* in the determination of policy, more satisfactory results are obtained. A great deal of the job of improving learning experiences for children at school is, and will continue to be, the responsibility of the professional staff of the school; but the staff will be able to do a better job of making decisions and carrying out policies if representatives of the parents and the children have a share in the process.

Lay citizens can make a particular contribution in the determination of school goals—in thinking with the professional staff concerning what they hope the school can accomplish. Also, parents can be especially helpful in evaluating the extent to which the school actually is achieving the objectives which have been agreed upon. Provision of the technical knowledge should, however, be delegated to and expected of the professional staff. The school staff should be willing, at any time, to explain in detail why particular procedures are utilized and to present factual evidence concerning the progress being made by children. Realization that parents can be of particular assistance in two areas—setting goals and evaluating the program's effectiveness—will help principals answer the question of who should participate in curriculum improvement.

How Can a Desirable Balance Be Maintained between Maximum Development of the Individual Child and Group Welfare?

Respect for the individual, his nature and needs, is one of the most cherished values of the American people. Findings of psychological re-

search concerning the growth and development of children have tended to support the basic importance of gearing a program of instruction to the individual child's needs and interests. Moreover, teachers and curriculum theorists have spoken movingly for many years about the necessity of modifying practices in schools so that the individual is more highly respected, so that his needs are more nearly met, so that his talents and interests are developed.

There is little doubt that the most significant changes made in curriculum practices in the past fifty years have stemmed directly from the increased knowledge about children. The child-centered schools, which represented a distinct break with traditional ways of educating boys and girls, were established, for the most part, in the second and third decades of the twentieth century.¹¹ Although new ideas in education usually take root very slowly,¹² the attention of the country was caught by the interesting and effective teaching being done in such centers as Lincoln School, the City and Country School, the Chevy Chase Country Day School, the University of Chicago Laboratory School, and the Ethical Culture School. As with most new movements, there were undoubtedly some proponents who professed to believe in the basic doctrines of interest, activity, and self-guidance, leading to optimum personality development, but who in reality did not understand the crucial importance of the teacher in creating conditions under which good learning could proceed. Chaos did result in some instances, and children learned attitudes and conduct which were antithetical to democratic living.

In spite of excesses which have sometimes been attributed to Progressive Education, there is little doubt that fundamental changes in the education of children were long overdue. The research which has been done since the establishment of the early child-centered school has documented, almost without exception, the basic ideas that children learn those things which have meaning for them; that children learn attitudes and understandings along with basic skills; that learning is an active process; and that experience is basic to learning.

During the same period of time in which the progressive education movement has been blossoming, another group of scholars, while not unmindful of the research in child development, has been insisting that the needs of the society—of the state, nation, and world—are of such overriding concern that schools must provide experiences which will develop the attitudes, understandings, and skills needed for effective citizenship.

¹¹ Harold Rugg and Ann Shumaker, *The Child-Centered School* (Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Company, 1928).

¹² Paul R. Mort, as a result of extensive research into the rapidity of educational changes, states that "a period of about 50 years elapses between insight into a need and the invention of a solution which will be accepted." "Educational Adaptability: The Theory and Major Findings of Studies," *School Executive*, 74:41 (September), 1951.

This group would utilize the psychological findings in determining *how to teach*, but would insist that the values of the people and the needs of the day should largely determine what to teach.

Perhaps the most dramatic incident in the development of curriculum theory and practice geared to social needs was the now-famous statement by George Counts entitled *Dare the School Build a New Social Order?*¹³ Stemming from the discussion which followed his original statement, and tempered by the long traditions of local control of education, the community school idea gradually emerged. In essence, the school is viewed by community school theorists as

... a school which has concerns beyond the training of literate, "right-minded," and economically efficient citizens who reflect the values and processes of a particular social, economic, or political setting. In addition to these basic educational tasks, it is *directly concerned with improving all aspects of living in the community* in all the broad meaning of the concept in the local, state, regional, national, or international community. To attain that end, the community school is *consciously used* by the people of the community. Its curriculum reflects planning to meet the discovered needs of the community with changes in emphasis as circumstances indicate. Its buildings and physical facilities are actively engaged in analyzing problems suggested by the needs of the community and in formulating and exploring possible solutions to those problems. Finally, the community school is concerned that the people put solutions into operation to the end that living is improved and enriched for the individual and the community.¹⁴

In recent years a third group has influenced thinking about how to maintain a balance between the maximum development of the individual child and group welfare—those who have focused attention upon group processes. Recognition of the fact that some groups function effectively and that others seem not to be able to accomplish anything led to research from which has stemmed much greater understanding of the ways of improving the productivity of groups.¹⁵ Techniques of teaching have been influenced by the new knowledge. According to some critics, a "cult" is developing—one which focuses attention almost entirely upon processes and which subordinates the welfare of the individual to the good of the group. The editor of a publication in the field of higher education has expressed concern for "social engineering," which he says is resulting from the application of science to human relations. He wrote,

¹³ George S. Counts, *Dare the School Build a New Social Order?* (New York: John Day Co., Inc., 1932).

¹⁴ Hanna and Naslund, "The Community School Defined," *loc. cit.*, p. 52.

¹⁵ See Stuart Chase, *Roads to Agreement* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951) for an interestingly written summarization of much of the research which has been done. Research is factually reported in Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, eds., *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory* (Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson & Co., 1953).

. . . the social engineering movement is a negation of the historical and philosophical development of Western civilization, with its emphasis upon the maximum development of man as an individual. Social engineering . . . is based upon the primacy of the group; the individual is subordinate and has meaning chiefly as he contributes to harmony within the group, which means that he must accept the group's values. This can only result in insistence upon conformity. It is this inevitable result which makes the social engineering movement so dangerous. It provides a psychological and philosophical rationale for a growing tendency in modern life which can only lead to the destruction of those values of individual worth and dignity of man which are the heritage of our Greco-Hebraic tradition.¹⁶

While all these movements have been influencing thought regarding ways of providing balance between individual and group welfare, the issue still is a knotty and unsolved problem. Careful students of education are finding common ground—as indeed the most able supporters of each position have done throughout the past quarter of a century. In a brilliant defense of the New Education, which has resulted from the application of scientific study of children and society during the first half of the twentieth century, John Childs insists that modern education is both satisfying to the learner *and* functional for the society. He emphasizes that the New Education is more than “activity for activity's sake,” as critics sometimes characterize it. Childs describes the fundamental thesis of the New Education as follows:

. . . the child is potentially a person, and . . . the best way to make him a mature, responsible human being is to treat him during his life at school as a person; namely, to provide him with opportunity to engage in genuine, purposeful life activities, in which he will be required to select among his own conflicting desires or ends through discriminating judgment, and through this actual experience of forethought and planning will learn to create dependable means for carrying through his purposes, and will progressively learn to judge the product of his activity and planning as well as himself by means of the concrete outcomes of his undertaking.¹⁷

Childs maintains, moreover, that

We miss the fundamental meaning of the functional curriculum if we do not perceive that it was never intended to give sanction to a random form of child activity, but was rather conceived as a distinctive form of rigorous intellectual training.

¹⁶ Francis H. Horn, “A Timely Warning,” in *Association for Higher Education, College and University Bulletin* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association), No. 5, 4:2 (January), 1952.

¹⁷ John L. Childs, “Some Ambiguities in Value Theory in Education,” in Harold G. Shane, ed., *The American Elementary School* (Thirteenth Yearbook, John Dewey Society; New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953), Chap. 2, p. 12. Reprinted by permission of Harper & Brothers.

ing in which the child would become a mature person through learning to think imaginatively and responsibly about the conditions and the consequences of his activity. . . . Those of us who profoundly believe in the values of the New Education have a responsibility to see that it not only gives children a satisfying school experience but also breeds in them the attitudes, the disciplines, the knowledge, and the characteristics required to meet the demands that are now placed upon our country.¹⁸

The authors subscribe to this point of view. Schools are established in a democratic society for goals more inclusive than the inculcation of attitudes of conformity and obedience—as important as these attributes may be in periods of stress in human society. Schools are established to help boys and girls make increasingly better choices as they live. This ability requires maximum development of intellectual powers and of values of lasting worth. Schools in democratic societies want children to conform, not because a stronger force (the teacher or principal) requires conformity, but rather because intellectually the children are able to recognize the consequences of nonconformity in human living and also to recognize the situations in which conformity may lead to negation of the very values society deems desirable. Such discrimination is highly intellectual, and any school which permits children to be complacent about their own intellectual development—any school which encourages anti-intellectualism to develop—is failing miserably. Let there be no misunderstanding, however. Intellectual activity need not be boring drudgery. Intellectual activity need not be limited to the musty and doubtful records of the distant past. Much of the school's program should be related immediately to the child's living experiences and the knowledge he needs to learn—the skills he needs to acquire, the attitudes he needs to develop—in order to make wise decisions.

Schools in a democratic society cannot ever honestly resolve the philosophical conflict between individual and group welfare. Principals and teachers need to realize that the supremacy of the individual is basic in our value system, but that the common welfare must be considered at the same time. The problem teachers face, then, is not whether to sacrifice the welfare of the group for the good of the individual or, conversely, to sacrifice the welfare of the individual for the good of the group, but rather to provide activities which will simultaneously enhance both individual and group welfare. It is comforting to know that, in most instances, what is good for the individual is also good for the group. On the other hand, it is somewhat frustrating to realize that when a conflict does exist there is no easy or pat solution.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 14, 19.

How Should Learning Experiences Be Organized?

Another basic question or problem facing the professional staff of any school is that of organizing learning experiences. While almost no one suggests that learning experiences can be effective if they are not organized, nevertheless there are sharp differences of opinion concerning the extent and the type of organization which is provided. Curriculum workers—principals and teachers—have to find answers to questions such as the following:

How can the total school program from kindergarten through the twelfth grade be a coordinated one?

Should learning experiences be planned in advance in order to provide continuity and breadth for all; should teachers planning with children be given complete responsibility for making sure that needed experiences are provided; or should some measure of both be made possible?

Should there be some all-school agreements?

How can knowledge about how children learn be utilized most effectively?

How can effective provision be made for individuals—teachers as well as children?

How can flexibility and coordination be insured?

How can a balanced day be provided for each child?

What kind of balance should be maintained between firsthand and vicarious learning experiences?

How can "things which happen" be used effectively in the learning program?

Fundamentally, the problem of curriculum organization centers on ways of providing needed learning experiences when children can best profit from them. The words "scope" and "sequence" are used by curriculum theorists to point up the dual nature of the problem. "Scope" refers to the content or experiences included in the instructional program. Scope can be described in different ways, the most common being the traditional subjects comprising the elementary school daily program: reading, spelling, arithmetic, science, art, health, and so on. In the past quarter-century, attempts have been made to change rather drastically descriptions of the scope of the curriculum. As a result, many school systems use more inclusive terms to describe the content of the program—terms such as language arts, social studies, the arts. Part of the pressure for revision resulted simply from the increase in knowledge to be taught and in the number of "subjects" incorporated into the program. Pressure

for relating learning experiences has stemmed also from research into the nature of human learning. Some curriculum workers have used, as a consequence, "areas of living" or "major human activities" to describe the scope of the program. Regardless of the terminology used, all curriculum theorists and all practicing teachers have to make decisions concerning what is to be taught and how it is to be organized for presentation.

"Sequence" is a term which is used to describe the order in which things are learned—or, more exactly, a term which focuses attention upon the necessity for providing continuity in learning. Any intelligent person knows, whether he is a professional educator with research findings at hand or a parent who has never reached the eighth grade, that you need to learn how to add, multiply, and subtract before you can efficiently perform a complicated problem requiring long division. Curriculum workers in subject areas such as arithmetic, therefore, have worked out sequences or steps by which the learner is led from simple and direct experiences to more abstract and more complicated processes. At first, sequence was thought to be achievable by the application of logic alone and, indeed, there are many teachers today who still regard the problem of providing continuity as solvable logically. Increasingly, recognition is being given to the individual nature of sequential learning—not all children profit equally from the same experience, and logical sequences may in some instances interfere with or hinder, rather than insure, effective learning. All attempts to improve the curriculum, regardless of the terminology used, sooner or later have to give consideration to the problem of continuity—to *sequence*—even as consideration is given to the problem of *scope*.

Four organizational patterns have been used so extensively in the past half-century in an attempt to achieve desirable scope and sequence of learning experiences that brief descriptions are warranted here. The structures frequently are given slightly different names, but usually are known as (1) the separate subjects, (2) the broad fields, (3) the emerging or child-centered, and (4) the core.

THE SEPARATE SUBJECTS CURRICULUM. The best-known way of organizing learning experiences for children is to utilize the bodies of knowledge which man has developed—the separate and distinct disciplines. This approach to teaching is so well known that it needs little or no explanation. The daily, weekly, and monthly programs are planned in advance, usually based upon textbooks, with rather specific time allotments for the subjects to be taught. Flexibility is provided from day to day as teachers capitalize upon unexpected learning opportunities.

Critics of this approach to learning are often almost vitriolic concerning its weaknesses. The logical organization of learning experiences on a

subject basis does have some strengths, however. First, it provides security for the teacher—a feeling of “I know what to do next, and I know how to get started.” Second, some content which youngsters need to learn, such as arithmetic, lends itself to logical organization and presentation. Third, good instructional materials are available. Fourth, most parents came through school with learning experiences organized according to subjects, and they seem to feel more secure about what children are learning when this approach is utilized. Fifth, many boys and girls seem to respond positively to the program because of its logical organization and routines. Sixth, learning experiences are planned—not haphazard nor left to whim.

If the separate subjects provided *the* answer to curriculum organization, no other patterns would have developed. However, as man increased his knowledge of world geography and scientific principles and as his concern for esthetics, health, and prevention of disease became greater, pressure was brought upon the school to include learning experiences in such areas in the planned program. The daily program gradually became one of short periods devoted to reading, spelling, writing, speech, language, music, art, health, arithmetic, science, physical education, history, geography, and citizenship. Teachers, frustrated by the lack of time to do all that was expected of them, tended to become efficiency experts interested in smooth routines, order, and immediate response.

THE BROAD FIELDS. To prevent the extreme fragmentation which developed as a result of adding subjects to the program and to provide more opportunity for pointing up relationships between disciplines, the broad fields pattern of curricular organization was developed. Springing initially from the social studies area of instruction, and probably achieving greatest support from specialists in that area, the approach has nevertheless spread to other areas. The daily program in schools using the broad fields approach to provide organization of learning experiences usually has large blocks of time for instruction in language arts, social studies, science and health, arithmetic, physical education, and the arts. In actual practice, schools frequently alternate science and health in the block provided for that emphasis, and do similarly with art and music, instead of developing a related and inclusive program.

Curriculum theorists who decry the separate subjects approach, because it represents subject matter set out in advance to be learned, criticize the broad fields pattern for the same reason. The criticism undoubtedly has considerable validity. The approach, however, represents a real improvement upon the separate subjects, because it takes advantage of natural subject matter relationships. Some of the strengths attributed to the broad fields curriculum pattern, although admittedly not applicable solely to this structure, are the following: (1) Comparatively long periods of time are planned for learning experiences in a broad area. (2)

Teacher and pupils have many opportunities to plan together what shall be learned within the area of emphasis. (3) Teachers who are specialists in subject areas are able to teach in their specialities if a departmentalized or platoon system of school organization is provided. (4) Relationships between disciplines are not only possible but definitely provided for. (5) Instruction in an area may be centered on a problem rather than on subject matter to be memorized. (6) Correlation among the content areas is definitely possible and quite probable.

In actual practice, many schools and school systems have moved toward daily programs which provide larger blocks of time in order that the teacher may organize learning opportunities which are related, only to have teachers break the large block into its component elements. A language arts block becomes, frequently, short periods devoted to spelling, language, speaking, reading, and writing. Consequently, the separate subjects plan of organizing instruction is frequently used by teachers in schools which profess to have moved toward the broad fields approach.

THE EMERGING OR CHILD-CENTERED APPROACH. The third method of organizing learning experiences for children is known by various names. Among those most commonly used to indicate the point of view held by proponents are the child-centered curriculum, the emerging curriculum, and the activity curriculum. The movement toward a freer type of learning program, with much active participation by the learners in deciding what shall be done, developed largely as a reaction to the lock-step methods of instruction which were commonly used in schools in the first two decades of the present century.

The fundamental premise upon which the learning program is based in the child-centered approach is that learners' needs should determine the activities which the school provides. Since the teacher cannot know in advance what the learners will need, the curriculum cannot be planned apart from a particular group of children. Critics frequently point out that this basic premise means a planless curriculum. Actually, this charge is only partially valid. Good teachers operating from this assumption spend a great deal of time developing or securing needed resources and planning possible next steps. Frequently staff members plan cooperatively, sharing ideas and concerns. It is true, however, that teachers do not have an over-all curriculum framework to serve as a guide. Assurance is lacking, consequently, that experiences deemed essential by parents will actually be included. Furthermore, not all children necessarily will participate in the activities undertaken by a majority of the group. A single child with an overriding concern or interest will be encouraged to pursue that interest, even if it means not participating in some experiences with other class members.

THE CORE CURRICULUM. The most recent curriculum development in-

fluencing elementary education is that pattern of organization known as the core curriculum. The core curriculum theorists and practitioners feel that teachers need some broad framework which will provide guidance so that there will be assurance that children will learn the attitudes, understandings, and skills which must be developed if democratic institutions are to survive and improve. They insist that an education sufficient for the day, an education which will contribute toward the eventual achievement of peace and prosperity throughout the world, cannot be left to chance.

The core curriculum was designed to focus the attention of the learners on activities of social significance. Various approaches have been developed. Those which seem to have had the greatest influence on practice up to this time have grown out of an analysis of the major human activities in which men of all cultures engage. One of the first attempts to design a curriculum using broad areas of human activity as the means for insuring that important learnings were included in the school program was developed in Virginia.¹⁹ Research in various social sciences was studied in the ensuing years to aid in the identification and validation of the important areas of living.²⁰ Most programs which have utilized the areas-of-living approach to curriculum organization have used approximately the following categories of human behavior as the determinants of scope:

- Developing, Conserving, and Intelligently Utilizing Human Resources
- Developing, Conserving, and Intelligently Utilizing Non-Human Resources
- Producing, Distributing, and Consuming Goods and Services
- Communicating
- Transporting
- Recreating and Playing
- Expressing and Satisfying Spiritual and Aesthetic Needs
- Organizing and Governing
- Providing Education ²¹

Proponents of the core program indicate that teachers are urged to keep such human activities in mind as they are planning with children the

¹⁹ Virginia State Department of Education, *Tentative Course of Study for the Virginia Elementary Schools, Grades I-VII* (Richmond, Va.: State Department of Education, 1934).

²⁰ O. I. Frederick and L. J. Farquhar, "Areas of Human Activity," *Journal of Educational Research*, 30:672-679 (May), 1937; and Henry Harap and others, *The Changing Curriculum* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1937), pp. 96-97.

²¹ *Santa Barbara County Curriculum Guide for Teachers in Elementary Schools* (Santa Barbara, Calif.: The Schauer Printing Studio, Inc., 1940), pp. 23-24. Another approach using "persistent life situations" is described in Florence Stratemeyer, H. S. Forkner, and Margaret McKim, *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947).

experiences to be provided by the school. They insist that children are interested in many things and that it is the teacher's responsibility to guide and channel interests in ways which will develop behavior needed for effective democratic citizenship. As planning activities are carried on, the teacher may ask questions to focus the attention of the group on learning opportunities they have not seen; he may make direct suggestions as a member of the group; and he may furnish instructional materials that will provide direction. Interests and needs of children are not sublimated to subject matter set out in advance to be learned; they are broadened, sharpened, and guided so that sound educational experiences will result.

Although considerable agreement has been reached among core supporters concerning ways of providing needed breadth in the over-all curriculum framework, the problem of sequence has not been resolved as satisfactorily. The "expanding community" concept has generally received more support than any other plan. Research studies have indicated that young children are interested in the here and now; that, as children become more mature, their horizons broaden so that by the years of pre-adolescence international happenings interest and concern them. The core programs generally draw upon these findings, but as one group of authors has indicated,

These guides to the integration of the work of each grade and the sequential arrangement of learning experiences are more the expression of what a committee of curriculum workers believes to be socially important and within the capacities and potential interests of students than reflections of research findings on the actual interests of children and adolescents.²²

One of the most influential national organizations in the education of children has questioned whether any of the curriculum patterns described by curriculum theorists achieves continuity in learning. After citing examples to indicate how several teachers were providing continuous learning experiences for children, the editor summed up the position of the authors who contributed as follows:

1. Continuity in learning is not guaranteed by any plan of scope and sequence designed for numbers of children. The growth status, the family and neighborhood background, and the perceptions of the individual all are factors capable of hindering or fostering continuity in learning, depending on how they are understood and used or ignored by the school.
2. Continuity in learning is not a simple matter of what to take up next in arithmetic or social studies. It is a matter of concept building, of attitude formation, of skill development, of personality integration at one and the same time.
3. Continuity in learning is not guaranteed by any administrative device me-

²² Smith, Stanley, and Shores, *op. cit.*, p. 528.

chanically applied. Yet the job of planning for better continuity can be made easier if artificial pressures and barriers such as rigid application of grade norms and content to be covered are removed. These barriers should be replaced by opportunities for a teacher to know each child well, to work with him closely over a favorable length of time, and to work on problems of importance to the child in the setting in which he is growing up.²³

FOCUS ON THE CLASSROOM. It seems obvious to the authors that the important consideration for principals and teachers as far as curriculum organization is concerned is what happens in the classroom. Good teachers will help pupils work together, solve problems of living, learn skills needed for effective civic participation, and develop talents and appreciations. Part of the school day probably may need to be organized, therefore, to support the theory underlying the core; part may need to be emerging or child-centered; part may illustrate broad fields theory; and part may be structured on the basis of the separate subjects. Good teachers, in other words, will work with children so that goals will be achieved, and activities, which seem to promise the greatest probable success, will be planned cooperatively. Good teachers will provide intelligent guidance for the learners and, therefore, will emphasize psychologically sound learning experiences. They will plan with pupils and with parents and with each other—whether the planning is related to an on-going unit of work in the social studies, ways to improve the time given to skill development in arithmetic, or a field trip to a local industry. They will provide opportunities for children to learn problem-solving techniques, utilizing problems closely related to their daily lives at school. They will work humanely with the children, providing an atmosphere which is stimulating and supporting. They will attempt to stimulate the maximum desirable development of each child—and they will be constantly searching for ways of providing experiences which will achieve that goal.

If recognition is given to the differences between children, recognition must also be given by the principal to the differences between teachers. No single curriculum theory or pattern, therefore, should be prescribed for a school or a school system. Some over-all agreement should undoubtedly be developed, in cooperation with parents, on the goals sought. Moreover, the staff will in all likelihood want to consider ways of achieving the goals, which may result in some over-all curriculum framework. Coordinated planning will make possible more adequate and better use of resources—but the principal should help each teacher see that, in the final analysis, the curriculum pattern has to be designed at the class-

²³ Alice Miel, ed., *Continuous Learning* (Bulletin No. 87; Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1951), p. 40.

room level for a particular group of children and by the teacher himself.

The teacher's job is to provide a good day at school for every child enrolled; it is important, therefore, to look critically and continually not so much at organizational structures but at what happens to the individual child. Too much emphasis in the past has been placed upon the form rather than the substance of curriculum planning and program development. The teacher should focus on the classroom and on what transpires there, never losing sight of the end points or goals which have been agreed upon.

THE PRINCIPAL'S RESPONSIBILITIES IN IMPROVING THE CURRICULUM

As the status leader of the professional staff and as the recognized leader of the school community, the elementary school principal holds a key leadership position in curriculum planning and program development. There is little doubt that this is his major responsibility. As he works to build good human relations between members of the staff, as he strives to develop sound and sensible administrative arrangements, as he endeavors to create an organizational structure which works effectively, *the elementary school principal constantly needs to have in mind the improvement of the learning experiences provided for children*. As he works with teachers, pupils, and parents in curriculum improvement, the elementary school principal is responsible for (1) providing know-how; (2) securing the active participation of many people, especially teachers, in developing goals and working to achieve them; (3) coordinating curriculum improvement activities; (4) securing needed materials and resources; and (5) stimulating continual evaluation.

Providing Know-how

Technical competence is required if groups are to perform effectively. Although no one should expect the elementary school principal to be a superman, it is not too much to expect him to have a good grasp of what is known about effective teaching, to be an able student of children and knowledge about them, to keep abreast of community developments which have educational possibilities, to be ever searching for new materials and new uses for those already accepted as standard in schools, and to be constantly attempting to improve his ability as a leader of groups.

The elementary school principal cannot be expected to know everything. Ignorance, however, cannot long be tolerated. If a principal does not exhibit technical competence and knowledge, either a new person will be secured or the very position of the principalship will be abolished. The

principal needs to be a student of the curriculum.²⁴ He needs to be continually seeking new insights and ideas; consequently, he subscribes personally or through his school to numerous educational periodicals. It is particularly important that the principal continue to regard himself as a student and a learner. No matter how thorough his college preparation may have been and despite the breadth of his experience, he will confront many problems which cannot be adequately solved without additional knowledge. Finding the sources of information, developing the skills of group work so that cooperative procedures are fostered, and knowing about the process of curriculum change are responsibilities of elementary school principals.

There are many ways that principals can continue to extend their understandings and insights. The following suggestions may be helpful:

1. Attend one national, one regional, and at least one state educational conference annually. Observe the techniques used by effective leaders to help groups function and consider ideas which are gained from the formal and informal activities. Discuss these with your staff.

2. Set for yourself a definite reading program which is planned in terms of the time available and your interests. Most principals can easily read a book a month in addition to periodicals. Choose what you read with care.²⁵ Make sure that you include nonprofessional materials in your reading program.

3. Visit other elementary schools within driving distance of your school. Check with members of the state department of education and officers of your state elementary school principals' association concerning suggestions of schools worth visiting. Take one or two of your teachers with you. Spend most of the school day in classrooms, and arrange a discussion after school with members of the staff who wish to participate. Discuss implications with your teachers as you return to your own community or school.

4. Participate actively in the program of the Department of Elementary School Principals at the national, regional, state, county, and local levels.

²⁴ Without attempting to limit the professional library of the elementary school principal, it seems obvious that he should be acquainted with the materials included in the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Bibliography on Elementary Education and Related Fields* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association). Revised periodically.

²⁵ Most of the periodicals previously referred to have book reviews which will give leads. Bibliographies in recent professional books usually have suggestions. Yearbooks of associations also provide up-to-date lists of worthwhile reading. See, for example, Edwin R. Carr and Robert G. Rinsinger, "The Professional Growth of the Social Studies Teacher," in Jack Allen, ed., National Council for the Social Studies, *The Teacher of the Social Studies* (Twenty-third Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1952).

Study the publications, accept responsibilities, and volunteer for work. You will undoubtedly learn more than you contribute.

5. Develop a resource file which includes a listing by topics of the articles in the professional magazines in the school library. When you need to get some information rather quickly about a curriculum concern, you will not, then, have to search through all the back issues for help. At the close of each year have the professional periodicals bound, just as college libraries do.

6. Purchase for your personal use a copy of the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*.²⁶ Keep it handy and use it frequently. It is the most complete listing of educational research which is available in a single volume.

7. Be a perennial student. Learn from your teachers, from parents, from civic and social groups in which you hold membership, from participation in the religious life of the community, and from children.

Securing Active Participation of Teachers

In Chapter 4, the authors indicated many ways to stimulate members of the professional staff to improve themselves and their teaching. Little more need be added here. Principals should assume that teachers have the same needs which provide motivation for other human beings—need for adventure or new experience, need for security, need for response, and need for recognition. To interest teachers in curriculum improvement, principals, therefore, will plan with the staff some new learning activities; they will make sure that teachers are protected from political machinations and unwarranted attacks; they will endeavor to see that real friendships are developed among members of the staff; and they will publicize accomplishments of the individual staff members and of the total group.

Teachers will become interested in curriculum improvement when they are surrounded by others who are interested. Participation in organized programs of curriculum improvement usually should be voluntary. Most staff members will participate, and more good will be developed than when teachers are required to take part. The principal should attempt to get all staff members actively working with the group. However, less than 100 per cent participation should not be considered a sign of weakness or failure.

Principals may find that the following specific suggestions will help in securing the active participation of teachers. The suggestions made in Chapter 4 will also provide some guidance:

²⁶ Walter S. Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (rev. ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950).

1. Work with the 90 per cent or more of the staff who want to improve instead of bemoaning, worrying, or spending most of the time with the small minority who aren't likely to change anyway.

2. Recognize the validity of the individual approach to curriculum improvement as well as that of group endeavor. As a single teacher recognizes a problem and seems eager to find a satisfactory solution to it, rejoice and work with him. Basic curriculum improvement requires individual *and* group work.

3. Organize group work around problems commonly recognized. Have several problem-centered groups so that the interests and needs of most staff members will be met.

4. Keep participation voluntary. Assume and expect all teachers to take part in some aspect of curriculum improvement. People strive to live up to what is confidently expected of them.

5. Be interested in the problems of teaching which the staff identifies. Surround them with learning opportunities and enthusiasm.

6. Free yourself from all routine duties which prevent you from spending a considerable portion of your time on curriculum problems, especially those which provide learning opportunities for children. Children can do an effective job of answering the telephone, keeping attendance records, counting receipts from the lunchroom, duplicating announcements, operating audio-visual equipment, greeting and helping visitors, keeping library books and records, and running necessary errands if secretarial assistance is not provided. Guidance is necessary, of course.

7. If funds for substitute teachers are limited, volunteer to serve as a substitute teacher yourself so that teachers may take an active part in city or county curriculum meetings and may visit in other schools.

8. Develop an active P.T.A. that provides volunteer workers, including teachers, for short periods of time. Be sure that two mothers will be available for each group when the teacher is to be absent, and make sure that the mothers plan with the teacher and the pupils in advance.

Coordinating Curriculum Improvement Activities

The elementary school principal is also responsible for coordinating curriculum improvement activities in the school. Because many persons are involved in effective curriculum improvement, the activities of various groups must be merged into a cohesive pattern. The principal, for instance, needs to be concerned about coordinating the work of several teachers of the same age-grade level. He is concerned about coordinating the work of any age-grade level with that of the preceding and following levels. He is interested in coordinating the work of parents, teachers, and children. He is interested, moreover, in coordinating the program of the

school with that of the city and county, through the supervisory staff and curriculum committees. The principal is particularly concerned about coordination with the succeeding level of the school system.

Coordination involves knowledge about what others are doing and willingness to modify plans in order that children may have superior learning experiences. Particularly, coordination of learning experiences requires close working relations with community agencies and organizations.

Some of the following suggestions may help principals begin to attack the problems of coordinating learning activities:

1. Work with other principals in planning orientation for the children who are moving to a higher unit of the school system. In some systems this may mean coordination between a primary unit and an intermediate-grade unit. In most instances, it probably will mean working with junior or senior high school principals.

2. Work with other principals in establishing effective working relations and understanding between the professional staffs of contiguous grade levels in separate administrative units. Plan meetings in which sixth- and seventh-grade teachers (in a 6-6 organizational structure) may get to know one another and may share ideas concerning ways of improving coordination and continuity of program.

3. If your school has several classes on each grade level, plan some small group meetings with teachers of each level—not to require the provision of identical programs in each classroom, but to share ideas and common problems and to develop a measure of agreement on basic procedures.

4. Plan other small group meetings with teachers of contiguous grade levels. Especially near the end of the year, provide opportunity for second-grade teachers to meet with and learn all they can about the first-grade children they will have the succeeding year, for third-grade teachers to meet with teachers of seven-year-olds, and so on.

5. Plan some staff meetings which include all professional personnel and some which include all employees of the school.

6. Develop organizational structures, as possible, which tend to insure greater continuity of program, such as teachers remaining with a particular group of children for longer than a year. (See Chapter 6.)

7. Work closely with curriculum consultants and supervisors provided by the school system. Strive to develop a program which meets the needs of the local school community, but recognize simultaneously that other schools have similar problems and may have developed some answers which will at least give you some hints about ways of improving your school's program. Supervisors usually know what is going on elsewhere

in the system and, therefore, can make a substantial contribution *when used as consultants*.

8. Work actively with nonschool community agencies. Help establish a community-wide improvement council with representatives from all major groups. Join and be an active member of some nonschool groups, and encourage your teachers to participate in such organizations.

9. Develop, over a period of several years, agreement on viewpoint—on those values which need to be supported at all levels in school and in the community.

10. Develop, as agreement on viewpoint is established, an over-all curriculum framework which provides some guidance for the teacher yet encourages flexibility and creative teaching.

Securing Needed Materials and Resources

The amount of space within the classroom, the supplies which are available, and the equipment which is furnished determine to a considerable extent the experiences which the classroom teacher is able to provide. One of the vital tasks in curriculum improvement, therefore, and one of the basic challenges facing the elementary school principal is establishing ways of identifying and utilizing resources effectively. At least three questions need to be answered: (1) What resources are available, and how can resources not now utilized be tapped? (2) How can materials prepared for use throughout the nation be adapted for effective use in the local community, and what materials need to be developed locally? (3) What coordinated planning needs to be undertaken in order to use available resources most wisely?

IDENTIFYING AND UTILIZING RESOURCES. Most faculties have found that careful inventories need to be made of resources which may be used in the instructional program. Both human and physical resources need to be identified. A short account of how one elementary school faculty identified the human resources available in the community is contained in a year-book of the Department of Elementary School Principals.²⁷ A questionnaire was distributed, asking parents to specify their special talents, hobbies, travel experiences, and similar information. Parents were invited also to indicate the activities they would be willing to help with at school. Information from the questionnaire was then transferred to small cards and filed under subject headings for easy reference.

Many school systems have made extensive studies of local physical, social, and industrial resources. Files are developed, indicating places of

²⁷ Vernon Hicks, "Using the Community's Human Resources," in Department of Elementary School Principals, *Bases for Effective Learning* (Thirty-first Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1952), pp. 122-125.

interest which may be visited, the person to contact, the probable age level at which children might profit from the experience, transportation arrangements, the number which can be accommodated at one time, and the hour or hours during which visits may be made. As teachers are increasingly employed for ten months, so that educational opportunities are provided for them prior to the opening of school and subsequent to its closing, surveys of community resources should become more common. In any community there are many learning opportunities which are not now utilized by schools.²⁸

ADAPTING AND PREPARING INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS. The great majority of printed instructional aids available to teachers in most school systems have been developed for use throughout the United States. Because local conditions may not approximate those envisioned by the textbook writers and publishers and because the backgrounds of experience and problems faced by the children may not have much relation to the printed instructional aids which are available, many school systems have found it necessary to prepare materials for teachers and pupils. Sometimes the locally prepared instructional aids are primarily collections of suggestions and listings of available resources which may be used in teaching. Such materials are usually known as resource units or resource guides. So many data are collected about any problem or topic that the teacher must be as selective as he would be in using any sourcebook of information.

In addition to the development of resource guides at the local level, many teachers find that they must rewrite materials for particular children and develop new sources of information of appropriate difficulty and content. Especially those teachers who attempt to provide opportunities for children to focus their attention upon community problems are faced with the necessity for developing materials. If, for instance, a sixth-grade teacher in the city of Nashville, Tennessee, had a group of children who became interested in smoke elimination as a community problem, they could find some written material concerning the problem in newspaper files and in printed regulations of the city council. They could obtain source material from other urban centers such as St. Louis, Pittsburgh, and Los Angeles. The *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* would indicate magazines in which a discussion of the smog problem had been presented, and perhaps copies of some of these magazines might be avail-

²⁸ For help in identifying community resources, see Department of Elementary School Principals, *How to Know and How to Use Your Community* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1942); Joanna C. Colcord, *Your Community: Its Provision for Health, Education, Safety, and Welfare* (3rd ed., rev. by Donald S. Howard; New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947); and Henry Harap, *Outline for a Community Survey* (Nashville, Tenn.: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1938).

able in the school library. The chances are, however, that almost no reading matter concerning the elimination of smoke could be found which would be appropriate for several members of the class who were not reading up to the mythical "sixth-grade level." Unless the teacher is to restrict the opportunities for such children to learn with the other members of the class, interesting and easy reading matter will need to be written by the teacher or under the teacher's supervision.

There is little doubt that too few school systems are preparing materials which provide appropriate help for teachers. Some systems, however, have prepared excellent instructional resource units or guides.²⁹ As any school or school system begins to think about and plan for instructional improvement, concern needs to be directed to the development of appropriate instructional materials and the adaptation of those materials already available.

UTILIZING WORKBOOKS. A special problem is created in numerous elementary schools by the consumable textual materials now provided by many publishing firms—workbooks. Practices and regulations regarding their use vary considerably. In some schools, children are required to pay a fee each semester to cover the cost of such material. In these instances, a system-wide policy encouraging the use of workbooks by classroom teachers has, generally, been adopted. Most, if not all, of the classrooms will have copies of several different workbooks, and a considerable portion of the instructional program is likely to be based upon the completion of exercises contained therein. In other schools, regulations have been made to limit the use of workbooks to one or perhaps two instructional areas—usually reading or language, and spelling. There are some schools in which workbooks are not permitted.

There is little doubt that workbooks lend themselves to misuse in the hands of the ineffective or unimaginative teacher. Also, there is good evidence to indicate that some teachers rely almost entirely upon them. Teaching deteriorates into something which should not be termed teaching—simply the process of saying, "Put away your language workbook. Take out your spelling workbooks and turn to page 32." Such practices are condemned wholeheartedly by the authors. Misuse of instructional material such as workbooks should not, however, suggest to principals that all use of them should be prohibited. Textbooks, also, are frequently misused; yet no one will suggest that books should be eliminated from elementary schools. It may be necessary for faculties to look critically at the procedures being supported as far as workbooks are concerned.

²⁹ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *List of Outstanding Teaching and Learning Materials* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association). Revised periodically.

Perhaps questions such as those which follow should be honestly answered:

Are workbooks selected for each child in terms of his ability, his needs, his present achievement level—or is everyone expected to be at the same place at the same time, for teacher convenience?

Are workbooks used to keep pupils quiet and busy while teachers complete report cards or records?

Are workbooks used as substitutes for firsthand learning experiences in the classroom or community? Is the learning day limited to verbal experiences?

Are workbooks encouraging teachers to regard themselves as task-masters or drillmasters—instead of regarding their activity as that of helping children develop interests, talents, skills, and abilities, including especially the ability to think and reason intelligently.

How many *different* workbooks in any one subject are available in a classroom? As many as there are children?

Are workbook materials used as supplementary aids—or as the basis for the instructional program? Are workbook materials used only when appropriate?

Are all assigned exercises in workbooks carefully checked and remedial programs developed for those children who evidence weaknesses?

How are workbooks selected? Are only drill-type workbooks chosen by teachers? What procedures are used to make sure that the workbooks which are purchased are the very best consumable materials that can be secured?

Are workbooks being used to lessen the teacher's responsibility for planning in advance and preparing in advance?

What can be done to make sure that other types of consumable material are readily available for teachers? How can the school system develop better materials at low cost?

PLANNING TOGETHER. Usually learning experiences provided for children can be improved greatly if teachers, within a building, plan together for the use of resources. The use of textbooks is a case in point. Teachers of the fifth and sixth grades sometimes criticize third- or fourth-grade teachers for permitting children of outstanding ability to use the books which are considered "texts" at the higher levels. The staff could agree, undoubtedly, that it is idiotic to attempt to prevent children from learning all they can. The total resources of the school should certainly be used to encourage maximum learning. Coordinated planning is required, however, or staff relations are almost certain to suffer. If the staff studies the problem intently it will, undoubtedly, work out some agreements to in-

sure the best use of all available supplementary resource material, the procurement of more related instructional aids, and the allocation to certain levels (with some flexibility) of problems or content.

Coordinated planning among schools in a system is also needed if effective use is to be made of community resources. A great deal of freedom needs to be maintained for the individual classroom teacher, of course.

Coordination is particularly a problem in planning for the effective use of audio-visual aids. In one city of about 25,000 which has six elementary schools, it was found that each school was attempting to build up its own library of filmstrips for classroom use. Coordinated planning led to the establishment of a "materials center" which initially circulated filmstrips, but quickly began to develop collections of flat pictures and supplementary books and to explore the possibility of buying a few frequently used films. By pooling the combined libraries of filmstrips and pooling district resources which had been spread thinly among the schools, a good library was developed.

One of the best reasons for developing an over-all curriculum framework, as was proposed earlier in this chapter, is that coordinated planning for effective use of resources is, thereby, much more possible. Without the flexible guide, certain activities of particular interest to children, but with limited educational possibilities, may be repeated year after year.

Planning for the improved use of resources is curriculum planning; it is program development. As in other aspects of program improvement, many individuals and groups need to participate in making decisions. To make the best use of human and community resources, the help of parents certainly must be secured. If space and equipment within the building are to be used most effectively, teachers and pupils will need to plan together; the custodian will need to be consulted. The principal is responsible for stimulating coordinated attack upon the problem of securing and utilizing resources for learning. Whether the staff, parents, and pupils really work together in making use of available resources, or whether they function as a series of one-room schools entirely apart from and basically ignorant of what goes on in other rooms, depends upon the quality of leadership the principal provides. The following list of suggested procedures may provide guidance in identifying and utilizing resources:

1. Identify, by means of a simple questionnaire, the parents in the community who have special interests and talents and those who are willing to spend a few hours each month helping with school activities. Develop a simple card file which contains the essential information concerning the human resources available.

2. Develop, in cooperation with the chamber of commerce and the supervisory-administrative staff of the entire school system, a list of places children may visit in connection with their school activities. Stimulate your staff to plan for the effective use of excursions so as to prevent wasteful duplication.

3. Obtain a comprehensive listing of free and inexpensive learning materials available for teachers.³⁰ Send postcards ordering all listed items which teachers indicate they may be able to use.

4. Develop a central resource file for free and inexpensive learning materials. If the school has a central library, the materials probably should be housed there. All materials placed in the files should be screened by a faculty committee unless the district has specific regulations regarding the use of such materials.³¹

5. Stimulate the staff to identify free and inexpensive materials available in the community which might be collected for school use (news-papers, scrap lumber, old phonograph records, rags, and magazines), and work with parents in getting such supplies when needed. (Caution: don't overload your storage facilities with a great deal of such material—keep only a moderate supply on hand.)

6. Provide central storage for all instructional supplies furnished by the district, and maintain a continuing inventory of unused materials. (See Chapter 11.)

7. Maintain a small but replaceable petty cash fund to purchase supplies needed for activities which could not be anticipated when yearly requests were made.

8. Continue to work with teachers in developing storage facilities and administrative procedures which encourage effective utilization of available materials.

9. Contact principals in nearby schools and discuss with them ways of sharing important but infrequently used materials, such as filmstrips.

10. Encourage teachers to prepare new materials for children's use, by providing clerical personnel who will type and duplicate such material.

Stimulating Continual Evaluation

Many problems are connected with the evaluation of learning. Teachers and parents are interested, of course, in the extent of pupils' progress in learning fundamental skills, in the effectiveness of methods and mate-

³⁰ Perhaps the best list available is Henry Harap and Associates, *Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials* (Nashville, Tenn.: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1956). Revised periodically.

³¹ Ishmael Hill, "The Restrictions Regulating Advertising in the Public Schools" (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation; Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1951).

rials utilized by teachers, in the attitudes being developed, in the values being taught, and in the effect of the school's program on the physical and emotional health of children.³² It is important for teachers to seek information concerning the effect of the school's program in order that they may plan intelligently for the future. Teachers need the help of others in this process, just as they do in all other phases of curriculum improvement. The elementary school principal should, of course, provide leadership.

Pupils can participate actively in evaluating aspects of the school's program. The evaluative guide for elementary schools developed by the Cooperative Study in Elementary Education of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools suggests, for instance, that most evaluative activity with children of the lower grades will need to be oral and in small group situations; but, in the upper grades, children can be asked to respond in writing to such questions as

- Do I attend school regularly?
- How much use have I made of the books in the classroom this year?
- How much use have I made of the books in the school library this year?
- What have I done to help keep the school building clean this year?
- What have I done to help make the school grounds attractive this year?
- How have I helped this year to make the school buildings more attractive?
- How have I helped this year to prevent waste of supplies?
- How have I helped to make others at school happy this year?
- How frequently do I participate in planning classroom activities?
- What committees have I served on in the room this year?
- What all-school committees have I served on this year?
- What do I like best about the school?
- What should be improved or changed? ³³

From the responses to such questions, teachers can gain a great deal of insight concerning the effectiveness of the learning experiences being provided. Problem areas undoubtedly will be identified by the children. Some of the suggestions which are proposed may seem to all staff members to be so eminently reasonable, practical, and possible that no delay in implementation need exist. Long-term study of other concerns may be undertaken as a result of the findings. Many school councils which are struggling to find reason for their existence could, with proper leadership, undertake an evaluation of the school's program.

Parents, also, need to have opportunities to discuss with other parents

³² See Chap. 7 for a more extensive discussion of the evaluation of pupil progress.

³³ Cooperative Study in Elementary Education, *Evaluating the Elementary School: A Guide to Cooperative Study* (Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1951), pp. 310-311.

and with teachers the school's provisions for learning. Many P.T.A.'s which have begun to sputter, because there seems to be little need for their efforts, can find a purpose for existence through contributing to an evaluation of the curriculum. Some simple questionnaires may be used to obtain parent opinion.³⁴ Discussions in which a small group of parents (such as those with children in one room) meets with teacher and principal are likely to be more fruitful than large total-school meetings. Shades of opinion are more easily gained in such gatherings, and opportunities to educate the parents concerning modern methods of teaching abound.

PLANNING GROWS OUT OF EVALUATION. The professional staff of the school, of course, has the greatest responsibility for evaluating the effect of the learning program. Occasionally school faculties who work hard in a systematic evaluation of the curriculum find that little or no change results from the effort. Usually a failure to capitalize on knowledge about what ought to be done, as determined by the staff, results because insufficient attention was directed to agreement on values and to planning. As indicated in Chapters 1 and 4, the elementary school principal, as he works with members of the staff, needs to make sure that planning includes not only attention to *what* is to be done, but also consideration for the *how* and the *who*. Until members of the staff have agreed upon the procedures which will be used and until individuals accept definite responsibilities, planning is likely to be ineffectual.

Usually, as members of a staff focus their attention upon solution of the problems which have been identified through evaluation, a time within which aspects of work will be consummated is cooperatively determined. A definite commitment to a time schedule helps individuals and groups get to work without undue postponement of good intentions. Scheduling of time in advance also makes it possible for those individuals with heavy family or other out-of-school responsibilities to plan their total week or month more intelligently.

PRINCIPLES FOR CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT

Each elementary school faculty collectively and each elementary school teacher individually, will answer by their actions the basic curriculum issues which were discussed earlier in this chapter. Learning experiences will be provided by the school. Someone will decide what is to be taught, or a number of people will share in making such decisions. The learning experiences will be provided in a haphazard fashion, or they will be carefully organized. An answer to the problem of maintaining balance between individual and group welfare will be worked out—satisfactorily or

³⁴ Harold C. Hand, *What People Think about Their Schools* (Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Company, 1948).

not. These issues cannot be side-stepped; they pervade the school day and determine to a considerable extent the effectiveness of the school's functioning.

In order to furnish some specific suggestions for elementary school principals so that they may provide effective leadership in curriculum improvement, the following principles are enumerated. In a sense they are a summary or distillation of ideas presented in the preceding pages.

1. *All the experiences children have under the guidance of the school comprise the curriculum, but the most important segment of the curriculum is that planned portion of the school day which is designed to develop skills of learning and behavior consistent with democratic values.* The staff needs to be interested, moreover, in various types of learnings—skills, understandings, attitudes, and ideals.

2. *Curriculum change requires changes in people.*³⁵ Since the classroom teacher is the prime determiner of what is taught, the process of changing learning experiences provided by the school is essentially the process of changing the understandings, aspirations, and skills of teachers. The main value of rewriting courses of study, of participating in systematic evaluation or planned in-service education programs, lies not in the product which may result from the teachers' efforts *at that time*. Rather, the value lies in the changes which take place in the individual teachers—changes which result in better ways of teaching and handling children *in subsequent days*.

3. *Curriculum improvement should be developmental and gradual rather than spasmodic.*³⁶ Since curriculum change is, in essence, social change reflecting the values held by the persons involved, changes should be made only after careful consideration and thought. By the very nature of social change, however, some fundamental modification may at times be made rapidly. Principals and teachers should be consistently working to improve the learning program for children rather than, as is sometimes done, attempting to crowd curriculum improvement activities into one year of a five-year cycle. Unless difficulties are to arise, changes should be planned as gradually as possible so that individuals may have the time needed to adjust. Changes should be made, however, as rapidly as possible so that progress will not be blocked or ground lost.³⁷

³⁵ George Sharp, *Curriculum Development as Re-education of the Teacher* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951).

³⁶ For a very helpful list of suggestions regarding leadership in curriculum improvement, see Alice Miel, *Changing the Curriculum* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1946), pp. 189-192.

³⁷ G. R. Koopman, Alice Miel, and Paul J. Misner, *Democracy in School Administration* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1943), p. 318.

4. *Curriculum improvement may result from coordinated efforts of the total staff and community so that a united front is apparent; but improvement is more likely to go forward on a broken front, which represents the understandings and aspirations of individual teachers and of the parents with whom they are working.* This principle is a reaffirmation of the theory of school autonomy as applied within the individual school. No two elementary schools in a city or county should be expected to provide identical programs, but they should be encouraged to plan learning activities which meet the needs of the children and the community. Teachers within a building should also be provided many opportunities to develop unique and challenging learning experiences for children. A measure of coordination is, of course, necessary, and it is the principal's responsibility to endeavor to stimulate the development of a cohesive and sequential program. Curriculum improvement, however, can come about only as changes are made—and teachers who are eager to try something different should be encouraged to do so after carefully considering possible outcomes. The broken-front approach is characteristic of much curriculum change.

5. *Agreement on values is basic to fundamental curriculum improvement.* In a sense, this principle is the opposite of the preceding one which suggested that change may proceed on a broken front. This principle underlines the fact that faculties should work to create a total school which teaches the attitudes, ideals, and values deemed worthy by society. If, for instance, courtesy is thought to be something which children should learn as a result of their school experiences, then each staff member—he teacher or custodian, bus driver or cafeteria worker—should seek to surround children with courteous behavior and with situations which teach courteous behavior. Unless values are to cancel each other, with the result that children are confused about what they should learn, agreement on desired outcomes is essential. Such agreement is, of course, developed as the leader helps the group clarify points of view—it is not a prerequisite for opening the school year.

6. *Teacher security is crucially important as changes are made in the curriculum.* Since the great majority of experiences provided at school are determined by the individual classroom teacher, it is evident that the teacher needs to feel secure as a person and as a teacher, unless children are to suffer. Security should always be balanced with adventure in order to prevent stagnation and atrophy. The principal needs to be aware of the necessity for making sure that teachers do not feel threatened by a stimulating environment in which change is taking place.

7. *A broad, flexible plan of curriculum organization should be developed so that the ideas of pupils, parents, and teachers may be effective.*

tively utilized in improving learning experiences. The structure which is created will, undoubtedly, vary extensively from community to community. The goal is to create conditions under which all individuals may function effectively, dissatisfactions may be drawn out in a wholesome manner, and aspirations may be expressed. Simplicity of structure should be maintained, but channels of communication and authority should be definitely established. Effective utilization of already existing structures or organizations (such as the P.T.A., the school council, the faculty meeting) is, of course, highly desirable.

8. *Curriculum experimentation is essential to curriculum improvement.* Although many parents are leery of experimentation in schools because they envision something like the "rats in the maze" or "dogs in the cage" conception of experiments, it is obvious that we need to keep looking for better ways of teaching boys and girls. In recent years considerable attention has been focused upon "cooperative curriculum research"³⁸ and "service research." These movements have developed from a realization that much of our knowledge about teaching and curricular practice is spotty and inconclusive and, furthermore, that many answers can be found only in the classrooms of the public school rather than in carefully controlled experimental situations. Principals need to encourage experimentation in the school. Parents should, of course, be completely informed in advance of the experiment, and competent consultant help should be available.

9. *Principles of leadership apply in curriculum improvement.* Because curriculum change means changing the ideas, understandings, and aspirations of people, the principles of leadership enumerated in Chapter 1 need to be supported at all times. The leader should work with all the individuals and groups involved in such ways as to release talents, develop high morale, protect individuality yet develop consensus, develop respect for evidence, demonstrate teaching effectiveness, and manifest faith in man's improvability. Learning programs provided for children at school need to be improved if a better world is to be created. High-quality leadership is essential.

³⁸ The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development has especially attempted to stimulate cooperative curriculum research projects in this country. The Horace Mann—Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation of Teachers College, Columbia University, has undertaken a number of projects of this type in collaboration with public school systems and has already reported on several: Arthur T. Jersild, Ruth J. Tasch, and Associates, *Children's Interests and What They Suggest for Education* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949); Ruth Cunningham and Associates, *Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951); Alice Miel and Associates, *op. cit.*; and Stephen M. Corey, *Action Research to Improve School Practices* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953).

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDY

1. Two first-grade teachers in the same elementary school have very different conceptions of a good learning program for six-year-olds. One teacher believes in a great deal of emphasis on drill in number work and phonics. Many children respond very well to her and to the program, and their parents are pleased with the academic progress made. The other teacher believes that much of the first half of the year should be spent in readiness activities such as taking excursions, doing creative art work, telling and listening to stories, participating in dramatic play, manipulating objects, and looking at attractive picture books. If you were the principal, what would you do?

- (a) Insist that the two teachers provide more similar programs, and work with them in finding common ground.
- (b) Place older children with the first teacher and younger ones with the second.
- (c) Ignore the differences and assure parents that both teachers are good.
- (d) Encourage both teachers to observe practices in other schools of the district.
- (e) Let each parent choose the teacher he would like to have for his child.
- (f) Inaugurate a program of school evaluation.
- (g) Discuss the problem with the two teachers.
- (h) Discuss the problem with the second-grade teachers.

Analyze the merits and weaknesses of each proposal. Suggest other possibilities.

2. A small group of parents, somewhat disgruntled by the progress being made by their children in school, have banded together in your community and have formed a committee called the School Improvement League. They believe that teachers' salaries should be raised substantially, that more schools should be built so that the number of pupils in each class can be lowered, and that the time has come to eliminate the "frills and soft pedagogy" and return to the fundamentals. Your superintendent has called a meeting of the administrative council to discuss action which should be taken. What do you think should be done?

3. The state department of education has recommended that programs for children in elementary schools should be organized in large blocks of time. Early in the school year you ask each teacher to give you a copy of his daily program, emphasizing that whatever schedule is submitted will be considered tentative and flexible. When the programs are submitted, you find that four teachers in the upper grades have programs which are highly fragmented. What would you do?

4. In a faculty meeting, two of the new members of the staff ask about the course of study. They are told that state curriculum bulletins are used to give general suggestions and guidance and that the local system has not developed any curriculum guides. One of the teachers tells about the "scope and sequence" chart which the system in which she previously taught had developed. She wonders aloud if such a framework would be helpful. Do you think so? What are the dangers inherent in locally prepared curriculum patterns? Would such a chart as the

teacher suggested interfere with good teaching? Regardless of your answers to the previous questions and your own personal convictions in the matter, what would you do if you were the principal?

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

- Adams, Faye, *Educating America's Children*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1954.
- American Association of School Administrators, *American School Curriculum*. Thirty-first Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1953.
- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Action for Curriculum Improvement*. 1951 Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1951.
- , *Creating a Good Environment for Learning*. 1954 Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1954.
- , *Toward Better Teaching*. 1949 Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1949.
- Beck, Robert H., Walter W. Cook, and Nolan C. Kearney, *Curriculum in the Modern Elementary School*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953.
- Cantor, Nathaniel, *The Teaching-Learning Process*. New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1953.
- Caswell, Hollis L., and Associates, *Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950.
- Caswell, Hollis L., and A. Wellesley Foshay, *Education in the Elementary School*. New York: American Book Company, 1950.
- Faunce, Roland C., and Nelson L. Bossing, *Developing the Core Curriculum*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951.
- Harap, Henry, and others, *The Changing Curriculum*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1937.
- Hockett, J. A., and E. N. Jacobsen, *Modern Practices in the Elementary School*. New York: Ginn & Co., 1943.
- Huggett, A. M., and C. V. Millard, *Growth and Learning in the Elementary School*. New York: D. C. Heath & Company, 1946.
- Krug, Edward A., *Curriculum Planning*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950.
- Lee, J. M., and D. M. Lee, *The Child and His Curriculum*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1951.
- Macomber, Freeman G., *Principles of Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: American Book Company, 1954.
- Miel, Alice, *Changing the Curriculum*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1946.
- Nesbitt, Marion, *A Public School for Tomorrow*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954.
- Ragan, William B., *Modern Elementary Curriculum*. New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1953.

- Saucier, W. A., *Theory and Practice in the Elementary School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951.
- Saylor, Galen, and William Alexander, *Curriculum Planning for Better Teaching and Learning*. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1954.
- Shane, Harold G., and E. T. McSwain, *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1951.
- Smith, B. Othanel, W. O. Stanley, and J. H. Shores, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development*. Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Company, 1950.
- Spears, Harold, *The Teacher and Curriculum Planning*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951.
- Stephens, Ada D., *Providing Developmental Experiences for Young Children*. Practical Suggestions for Teaching, No. 11; New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952.
- Stratemeyer, Florence, H. S. Forkner, and Margaret McKim, *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947.
- Theman, Viola, *A Good School Day*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950.
- Wiles, Kimball, *Teaching for Better Schools*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952.

6-

The Development of Effective School Organization

DURING THE FIRST FIFTY YEARS of the twentieth century, American education was in the grip of an organizational structure which provided levels, known generally as grades, through which each child progressed on his way toward an education. Theoretically, successful completion of each grade assured the learner (and his parents) that the end result of the process would be an educated person. Actually, however, there was often little articulation between the levels; sound psychological principles of learning were often ignored; and the product of the educational system frequently disappointed both teachers and parents.

How did such a graded system develop? How satisfactory is it in the light of current knowledge about development and learning? What innovations or modifications are observable in elementary school organization? This chapter attempts to provide a framework within which answers to such questions may be developed by elementary school principals.

THE GRADED SCHOOL CONCEPT

Historically, the graded school dates from about the middle of the nineteenth century. The factors which led to the establishment of a school organized by grades are clearly discernible, however, in the early history of this country. Although at least three distinct patterns of education were established by the early Americans, subsequent events have shown that the New England states created the system which has influenced later development most significantly.¹ It was there that compulsory education

¹ E. P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934), classified the different points of view regarding education as the "parochial school attitude," the "pauper-school non-state-interference attitude," and the "compulsory maintenance attitude."

was inaugurated along with tax support for schools. It was there that a strong state system of education with control vested in a local board of education was developed. It was there that the graded school emerged about 1850.

The graded school did not, of course, spring into being as something distinctly different and apart from its antecedents. As a matter of fact, events which had preceded its development can now be seen as accurately foretelling its growth. Although instruction was almost universally provided on an individual basis during the whole colonial period, schools representing different levels of achievement were established almost from the beginning. Most children received their initial education in dame schools, where the curriculum consisted of the A, B, C's, some simple reading, and the most rudimentary number work. As one author has described them, dame schools were "kept rather than taught."² At about seven or eight years of age, after three or four years in the dame school, some youngsters moved into the English grammar school. There was little, if any, articulation between these schools, and many children attended the English grammar school without prior attendance in a dame school. Both units were ungraded schools in which instruction was given on an individual basis.

During the last half of the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth centuries, the pattern of organizational structure for elementary schools underwent significant changes. In Boston, departmental schools were established—schools which had special functions as indicated by their names: reading schools and writing schools. Children attended the schools alternately. Gradually the schools came to be housed in the same building although, at first, separate headmasters and assistants were provided.³ This separation of the school into units based upon subject matter was undoubtedly the first evidence that a graded program would later emerge.

At about the same period of time, another development was influencing the organizational structure of American schools—the Lancastrian movement, which resulted from interest in mass education and from limited funds to support it. In essence, Lancastrian schools employed a monitorial system of instruction. The headmaster provided instruction for a few of the brighter pupils, who were selected as monitors. These pupils, in turn, taught the children assigned to their group. Enrollment under one teacher

² Henry J. Otto, *Organizational and Administrative Practices in Elementary Schools in the United States* (Publication No. 4544, November 22, 1945; Austin: The University of Texas, 1945), p. 218. (Material cited by Otto in the aforementioned publication has been liberally drawn upon in the following historical treatment of the graded school.)

³ F. F. Bunker, *Reorganization of the Public School System* (Bulletin No. 8, U.S. Office of Education; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1916), p. 28.

varied from two hundred to a thousand pupils.⁴ Pupils were assigned to groups on the basis of achievement. Gradually, assistants were assigned to the headmaster to provide instruction in anterooms off the main hall of the school and, in time, more and more of the teaching was done in the small recitation rooms.

As a natural outgrowth of these organizational innovations, the need for instructional materials of graduated difficulty became evident. After the publication of the rightfully famous McGuffey readers, there remained only the need to assign a teacher and a group of children, differentiated according to achievement, to a classroom for the entire day. This provision was made by J. D. Philbrick in the Quincy Grammar School of Boston in 1848. Although many school buildings which had been constructed to house a monitorial system of instruction did not encourage the development of a teacher-per-grade organizational pattern, the movement quickly spread.⁵ As a matter of fact, changes in the graded system were made so rapidly, and attempts to improve the classification of pupils were so extensive that one author indicates that "by 1870 the pendulum had swung from no system to nothing but system."⁶

Rigid application of the graded theory in the schools resulted inevitably in a great number of failures, with accompanying overloading of lower grades and many dropouts in the upper grades. Numerous attempts were made to overcome such obvious weaknesses of the system. Semi-annual promotions were instituted, so that it became possible for brighter pupils to progress more rapidly than usual and for children who were doing unsatisfactory work to repeat only half a year's work. Quarterly promotion plans were instituted in some areas. These attempts to overcome the weaknesses of the graded concept by shortening the promotion interval were, at best, only partially successful. Educators continued to search for answers to the oversystematized practices which characterized the rigid application of the graded school concept.

ORGANIZATIONAL MODIFICATIONS IN THE GRADED SCHOOL

Numerous attempts have been made to eliminate some of the undesirable practices which became established in the second half of the

⁴ J. F. Reigart, *The Lancasterian System of Instruction in the Schools of New York City* (Contributions to Education, No. 81; New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1916), Chap. 4.

⁵ Remnants of the Lancasterian movement may still be found in the "study hall," which is maintained in many secondary schools. Until recently one elementary school in Nashville, Tennessee, was organized and operated on the "hall plan," which was essentially Lancasterian.

⁶ W. J. Shearer, *The Grading of Schools* (New York: H. P. Smith Publishing Company, 1899), p. 21.

nineteenth century as the graded school developed. Four plans have been so extensively used in elementary schools that they will be briefly described: (1) individualization of instruction, (2) the platoon school, (3) departmentalization of instruction, and (4) the self-contained classroom unit. Obviously, the small school has unique problems of organization, and a separate section is, therefore, included to focus attention upon organizational practices in such units.

Individualization of Instruction

The first attempts to break the lock-step methods of instruction, which developed from rigid application of the graded school concept, resulted in various plans for individualizing instruction.⁷ Among the best-known and most extensively practiced innovations for individualizing instruction are the Winnetka Plan and the Dalton Plan. Both of these developments were undoubtedly influenced by earlier attempts of Preston Search at Pueblo and Frederic Burk at Santa Barbara and San Francisco. The plans which were developed have varied considerably in detail, but generally have provided either for "contracts" which the pupil completes at his own rate or for parallel "tracks" which pupils of different abilities follow at the maximum possible speed. In each instance, the program could be considerably enriched for children of high ability either by providing more difficult contracts or by requiring more quantitatively.

Caswell and Foshay⁸ indicate that the principal argument for such plans of individualizing instruction is that the child is encouraged to work at his own best rate. They further state that two criticisms are frequently made concerning the plans: (1) the curriculum is not really adjusted to the individual except in terms of rate of learning, and (2) discrete elements of the program are taught in isolation, so that it is difficult for the child to apply what he learns at school in daily life.

Historically, the organizational plans for individualizing instruction served an important function. As a result of such efforts and subsequent psychological research, the individual pupil became the focus of attention as he had not been since the establishment of monitorial systems of instruction and the graded school. Unfortunately, however, subject matter set out in advance to be learned was the controlling factor in each of the plans so devised. While the authors believe that there are some skills, understandings, and attitudes which need to be taught, they also believe that not all children need to do the same things in order to learn what is needed. Responsibility for varying the content as well as the speed of

⁷ Otto, *op. cit.*, pp. 232-238.

⁸ Hollis L. Caswell and A. Wellesley Foshay, *Education in the Elementary School* (New York: American Book Company, 1950), pp. 318-319.

coverage needs to be given the classroom teacher. Although some school systems may still have remnants of the contract plan for individualizing instruction, a study made in 1948 by the U.S. Office of Education and including fifty-two city school systems indicates that flexible groups for instruction in reading and arithmetic or some provision for remedial teaching were the only noted organizational plans for individualizing instruction.⁹

The Platoon School

In 1900, William A. Wirt inaugurated a new organizational structure in the public schools of Bluffton, Indiana. As perfected a few years later in Gary, the plan provided for maximum use of school facilities and, to some extent, for enrichment of the learning experiences for children. In essence, the plan calls for the division of the pupils into two groups or " platoons." While one of the groups is receiving instruction in academic subjects in the homeroom, the other platoon is participating in enrichment activities such as art, music, drama, and physical education. Specialists provide the instruction in the "nonacademic" phases of the program. Since the classroom teachers have a platoon simultaneously, a considerable saving may be effected in teachers' salaries.

The platoon organizational pattern was widely practiced during the first half of the twentieth century in elementary schools of the United States. It was adopted almost without exception by large and rapidly growing cities, because it made possible the maximum utilization of the school plant. As psychological research documented the relatedness of learnings and the necessity for providing a secure, harmonious, homelike place for children to learn, the plan began to lose favor. The U.S. Office of Education report on organizational practices in fifty-two cities indicates that in 1948 only three of the sampled cities were using the platoon plan.¹⁰ Of these three cities, one had already converted the primary grades to self-contained classroom units; one had approximately one-fifth of its schools still using the platoon plan; and one had converted all primary grades to self-contained units with some departmentalization and platoon organization still existing in upper grades. A more comprehensive study undertaken by the Research Division of the National Education Association disclosed that in 1948 only 8 per cent of 1,598 school systems had one or more schools using the platoon plan.¹¹ It is obvious that, in spite of the

⁹ Effie G. Bathurst and others, *Fourteen Questions on Elementary School Organization* (Pamphlet 105, U.S. Office of Education; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1948), p. 15.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 15.

¹¹ Research Division, National Education Association, "Trends in City School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *Research Bulletin*, No. 1, 27:17 (February), 1949.

advantages claimed for the structure, school systems are moving from the platoon organization toward the self-contained classroom.

Supporters of the platoon organization claim for it three strengths: (1) effective plant utilization, (2) economies in teachers' salaries, and (3) possible enrichment of the program. Attempts to evaluate the relative effectiveness of platoon schools with those organized on other plans have not yielded conclusive evidence.¹² There seems to be little doubt that better utilization of available space is made in schools organized on the platoon plan and, furthermore, that considerable savings on construction costs can be effected. It is obvious, of course, that the cost of an education is one factor to be considered—but it is equally possible that in education, as in business, you may get what you pay for.

Critics of the platoon school plan of organization emphasize the importance of human relationships in the education of children. They point to the regimentation which inevitably results from the tightly meshed schedules. They emphasize that children do not have a "spot to call their own," because two groups use the same facilities. They insist that young children, particularly, need to have the security that comes from association with one adult and from living in one place. They state, moreover, that there is little evidence to indicate that the program is enriched by the specialists. As a matter of fact, critics of the platoon school say that the division of the learning day into academic and nonacademic subjects is unreal and unwise. The platoon school organizational structure is definitely on the wane in American elementary schools largely because of its impersonal and routinized nature.

Departmentalization of Instruction

Many schools which have a history of platoon organization have modified the structure considerably to provide more flexibility, but have continued to provide specialists in certain areas of learning. Most frequently, use is made of special teachers in art, music, and physical education. A great deal of variation exists in the extent of departmentalization supported. Some school systems expect each elementary school teacher to provide instruction in all areas except music. In other systems, classroom teachers are relieved of physical education duties, but are expected to provide learning experiences in the creative arts. In some schools, the entire program in the upper grades is departmentalized, with special teachers for each broad area in the program.

Departmentalization of instruction has developed in the public schools

¹² Henry J. Otto, "Elementary Education—Organization and Administration," in Walter S. Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (rev. ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950), p. 374.

for at least three reasons in addition to the platoon influence: (1) inadequate programs of teacher preparation, (2) undersupply of qualified teachers, and (3) recognition that classroom teachers need some time away from children—some time for relaxation. There is little doubt that many elementary school teachers are really not qualified at present to provide children with effective learning experiences in all areas of instruction. When asked for suggestions concerning ways of improving the instructional program, many teachers indicate that special teachers of music and art should be provided. Teachers frequently feel inadequate in these areas, because their college programs did not develop the needed skills. Many elementary school teachers came through highly academic college programs with a maximum number of hours in a specialized subject area, such as English or sociology, and a minor in another subject area. Such teacher education programs usually provide a minimum of direct experiences in the arts—and usually then only as a consumer or appreciator of the arts, or as a performing vocalist or instrumentalist. Limited acquaintance with appropriate materials and desirable experiences for children in the arts is at present provided by good college programs leading to elementary school teaching; but, even so, most teachers have obvious weaknesses in these areas. Departmentalization of instruction has developed then, in part, to compensate for teacher inadequacies.

The problem of securing teachers who are prepared to provide good learning experiences in all areas of instruction has also tended to encourage departmentalization of instruction. At the same time that elementary school enrollments were zooming to unprecedented highs, teacher education institutions were graduating an overabundance of teachers who were qualified to teach in particular subject matter fields in high schools. Superintendents of schools, faced with the problem of providing teachers for children, necessarily turned to the college graduates who were not prepared to teach in all areas, but were highly qualified in one or two. To make effective use of a staff liberally sprinkled with such graduates, a departmentalized program was logically developed.

The third reason why some departmentalization of instruction is frequently found in elementary schools is that almost all teachers need some free time during school hours—preferably around the middle of the day—when they can relax for a few minutes. A partially departmentalized program in the elementary school frees the regular classroom teacher, providing a period similar to that enjoyed by almost all high school teachers. After such a break, the children and the teacher seem able to work together with renewed enthusiasm. In the opinion of the authors, however, a rest period for the teacher can be provided during the day without much departmentalization of the program.

Departmentalization of instruction to some extent is quite prevalent in elementary schools of the United States. A study made by the Research Division of the National Education Association disclosed that 51 per cent of the cities which reported have some departmentalization. Among the cities using the plan, 12 per cent reported that departmentalization is increasing, and 35 per cent reported that it was "on the way out."¹³ The U.S. Office of Education study previously referred to also indicates that departmentalization is "still present in some degree in most of the cities reporting, especially in the intermediate and upper grades." The report goes on to state that this type of organization is chiefly an "expediency measure until such time as a complete change-over to the self-contained class unit can be effected."¹⁴

The same criticisms which have been directed to the platoon school type of organization are valid concerning departmentalized programs of instruction. When departmentalization exists, no matter how effective the special teachers may be, the instructional program tends to become rigid and inflexible. Time schedules are likely to control unwholesomely the learning experiences. Music, art, and physical education, if provided by specialists, tend to become "periods" rather than content which makes a contribution to learning experiences throughout the day. In spite of herculean efforts of the staff, the child's day is likely to consist primarily of starting and stopping activities. The authors support wholeheartedly, however, the provision for specialized consultants to help teachers and children on a flexible schedule and through service centers, as described later in the chapter.

The Self-contained Classroom

During the past quarter of a century an awareness of the importance of human relations in teaching has been developing, and the consequent need has been recognized for an organizational structure which permits and encourages one person to serve as the leader and guide for all or almost all learning experiences provided for a group. The self-contained classroom—a unit within which almost all experiences are provided—has resulted. At first glance, the self-contained classroom might be thought of as a return to the teacher-per-grade concept which grew out of the monitorial system of instruction. There are differences, however, in the modern interpretation. Instead of forming groups based upon levels of achievement rigidly adhered to through fixed standards of promotion, the concept of the self-contained classroom encompasses the basic idea of one

¹³ Research Division, National Education Association, "Trends in City School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *loc. cit.*, p. 16.

¹⁴ Bathurst and others, *op. cit.*, pp. 14-15.

teacher providing guidance for a group of children of approximately the same chronological age.¹⁵ From time to time other persons may be called upon for special services, but the basic responsibility for controlling the environment and guiding activities is given to one teacher.

There seems to be little doubt that the self-contained classroom unit is coming to be the accepted best unit of organization for instruction in elementary schools. The study made by the U.S. Office of Education indicates that the self-contained classroom is the "overwhelming choice" of the persons responding to the inquiry.¹⁶ In many instances, the classroom unit is accepted as the basic organizational pattern, but opportunities for enrichment are provided through service centers. It is believed that at least four such centers should be provided—a central library which includes instructional materials in addition to books; an art center where special equipment, such as kilns and jig saws, is housed and where space is available for groups to work on outsized projects; a music center which is equipped with many instruments, records, recording equipment and amplifiers; and a play-health center which includes space for indoor play and a clinic or health room. Staff members assigned to such centers serve as consultants or helping teachers.

Caswell and Foshay¹⁷ indicate that staff members assigned to service centers should have at least four specific types of responsibility: (1) making sure that the area represented by the center is receiving desirable emphasis in the over-all program of the school; (2) helping classroom teachers, upon request, to plan activities appropriate for the group and to secure needed materials, so that learning experiences provided in the regular classroom are challenging and effective; (3) providing special projects growing out of classroom work; and (4) providing opportunities for individuals to develop special interests and talents.

Modifications and extensions of the concept of the self-contained classroom unit are observable. In some modern schools, for instance, a central lunchroom is no longer provided; instead storage facilities are constructed within each classroom for tablecloths, silverware, and dishes, and the food is brought to the classroom. Children are thus given opportunity to set the tables and decorate them, to eat without undue pressure for haste, to learn to carry on effective conversation during meals, and to accept some responsibility for cleaning up after lunch is completed. Of course, dishes and silverware are taken to the central kitchen for sterilization after each meal. The self-contained unit usually also includes outdoor space assigned specifically to the group for outdoor activities.

¹⁵ See page 150 for a discussion of inter-age grouping—a modification of this interpretation of the self-contained unit.

¹⁶ Bathurst and others, *op. cit.*, p. 14.

¹⁷ Caswell and Foshay, *op. cit.*, pp. 326-328.

Problems of the Small School

As has been seen, the application of the graded school concept to schools of considerable size resulted in semi-annual and quarterly promotions, grouping on the basis of achievement, and organizational structures which tended to become rigid and inflexible. Application of the graded school concept to small schools—especially one-room schools—resulted in a school day broken into short periods of recitation and long periods of individual study. With eight grades in one room and all the “subjects” to cover, teachers developed systematized schedules which gave each grade short periods of from ten to fifteen minutes with the teacher. A few activities, especially play, were participated in simultaneously by all or almost all members of the group.

The one-room school can be thought of, however, as a self-contained classroom unit with inter-age grouping. If teachers and parents are not bound by the graded concept which has dominated American education for a hundred years, the small school can provide a structure with real strengths. Teachers can provide flexible groups for instruction—groups which cut across grade-level lines. Plans for alternating content in successive years in certain areas of instruction can also be developed in order to provide fewer activities within the school day. There seems to be little doubt that current trends in organization tend to support the idea that the self-contained classroom, as exemplified by the one-room school, has real strengths. The creation of continuing-teacher plans, the development of primary and intermediate units, the establishment of neighborhood schools, and the practice of inter-age grouping which has been developed in large schools are all attempts to approximate in the large unit the conditions which could exist in one- or two-room schools and do exist in the best of such schools. Typically, the small school in the past, however, was the victim of the graded concept of education. The group of pupils frequently contained a considerable number of adolescents who disrupted morale.¹⁸

The small school unit does, of course, have considerable limitations thrust upon it, because pupil costs tend to be higher than when a considerable number of children are brought together. Provision of service centers, such as those described earlier, is almost impossible unless an unusually high economic base exists. Opportunities exist, however, for small schools to capitalize on the advantages which are inherent in the small unit. Older children can accept responsibility for helping with the instruction of those who are younger. A homelike atmosphere with desirable

¹⁸ For a fascinating novel of teaching in small schools, see Jesse Stuart, *The Thread That Runs So True* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1949).

human relations can be established. Many activities can be planned in which the whole school participates, each learner at his level of competence. Other activities can be planned for the older children or for the younger ones. If desirable learning experiences are to be provided in small schools, the teacher and the parents will need to minimize grade levels and to develop a program which challenges and interests each pupil.¹⁹

CURRENT TRENDS IN SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

School organization is developed and serves ideally to encourage and support the best possible learning program. As has been shown in previous sections of this chapter, however, the organization which is developed may actually interfere with and almost prevent desirable learning opportunities for children. The criterion by which any organizational pattern must be judged is simply "what happens to the learner."

The conviction is held by the authors that the self-contained classroom unit is the most desirable of all organizational patterns which have been developed. Although research evidence has not clearly documented this position, judgments of teachers, principals, supervisors, and elementary education specialists support the self-contained classroom. Attempts to improve upon the basic classroom-unit structure are continuing. Most experimentation in recent years has centered upon (1) the length of time a teacher should remain with a particular group of children, (2) the elimination of grade-level lines and the establishment instead of units which encompass two, three, or four of the traditional grades, (3) the establishment of neighborhood schools for younger children, and (4) the grouping of children of different ages within a single classroom.

Due to the pressure of numbers, other trends in elementary school organization are clearly evident. The most obvious, and perhaps the most serious, is the development of the split-session or the double-session organizational pattern. As a result of interest in the welfare of the individual combined with pressure of numbers, stress has been placed in recent years upon the development of special classes for the gifted, the slow-learners, and the children with physical disabilities.

Continuing-Teacher Plans

One of the strengths of the one-room school is that when the teacher remains in the school for several years, he comes to know each child intimately and is, therefore, more able to provide effective guidance. There is little doubt that the teacher-per-grade concept, which dominates American elementary education, is a wasteful organizational structure, because most of what teachers know about children in May or June is

¹⁹ For many excellent suggestions concerning this problem, see Kate Wofford, *Teaching in Small Schools* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946).

unused in September. Attempts are made, of course, through establishment of cumulative record systems, to provide as much basic information for the new teacher as is possible. Most of what a teacher knows about a child's interests, abilities, aspirations, and needs, however, cannot be recorded effectively. To overcome this inefficient organizational plan, many schools have been encouraging teachers to stay with the same group of children for two or more years.

The relative effectiveness of instruction under teacher-per-grade plans and continuing-teacher plans of organization has not been proved by scientific research. A study of the opinions of teachers who have had some experience with the continuing-teacher plan indicates that they overwhelmingly support it.²⁰ The teachers who responded to a questionnaire indicated that they believe a two-year cycle of rotation is preferable to a longer one. Over 90 per cent of the teachers who had experienced the continuing-teacher plan identified the following advantages:

1. It helps the teacher to judge pupil growth and to emphasize the growth of the whole child.
2. It makes it possible for the teacher to know the pupils better.
3. It makes possible a program giving consideration to individual differences and better provision for guidance.
4. It adds to a feeling of security on the part of children.²¹

Over 80 per cent of the teachers in Bondurant's study indicated the following advantages for the continuing-teacher plan:

1. It allows the teacher to use previous experiences as stepping stones to broad, new experiences.
2. It challenges teachers to see that every child grows to the best of his ability.
3. It breaks down grade level requirements on the one year basis and works for certain accomplishments and growth in terms of two or three year periods.
4. It lessens the confusion created by shuttling children back and forth between traditional and progressive teachers.
5. It enables the teacher to adopt a flexible and informal manner.
6. It is illustrative of one of the ways in which child development principles may become an integral part of a teacher's understanding.
7. It facilitates integration and the curriculum can be kept flexible in both content and time allotment.
8. It makes possible a greater unification of the pupil's work.
9. It enables teachers to experiment with grade placement of materials and subject matter.
10. It creates more interest and enjoyment in school for children.²²

²⁰ Mary Katherine Bondurant, "The Continuing-Teacher Plan in the Elementary School" (Unpublished M.Ed. thesis; Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1951).

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 38-49.

²² *Ibid.*, pp. 49-50.

There seems to be little doubt that the practice of keeping a teacher with a group longer than a year will become more common in the years ahead. As faculties think about extending the practice, they will want to discuss and consider guidelines for action such as the following:

1. Structures need to be developed so that understanding of and information about children and their needs is not lost each year.
2. Any change in basic organizational structure should be made only after careful consideration by those involved.
3. The broken-front approach to educational progress should undoubtedly be characteristic of the change-over to continuing-teacher plans. When a first-grade teacher is eager to stay with a group for a second year and a second-year teacher is willing to start with a six-year-old group, the opportunity should be extended to them. The plan may spread gradually throughout the school, and should not be imposed arbitrarily.
4. Parents have a real stake in the education of their children and should have opportunity to think with teachers and principals about organizational plans. If a great deal of objection to the continuing-teacher plan is voiced by parents, its inauguration should be delayed. When parents object vociferously to the same teacher keeping the group a second year, it may be that the teacher needs professional skills which can be developed through in-service programs or additional college work. It may be that the teacher needs personal qualities, which the principal and the staff may help develop over a period of time, or that the teacher needs the challenge which comes with a new assignment. In the event parents are not well informed about the teacher's effectiveness, a program of parent education should be considered.
5. Teachers who are known to be ineffective should not be kept with the same group of children for long periods of time. Such teachers, of course, should not be guiding the learning experiences of children at all. But administrative officials often have the responsibility for assigning such teachers and, consequently, must use the best possible judgment in assigning them.
6. It is possible for teachers to stay with the same group for too long a period of time. The same cycle does not necessarily fit each teacher, nor does the same cycle necessarily work with every group of children. Flexibility should be maintained.

The Primary Unit and the Neighborhood School

A natural extension of the continuing-teacher idea has, along with pressure of enrollments and cost of construction, stimulated the development of what is known as the primary unit and the neighborhood school.

The two organizational structures have much in common, although they are probably the result of different forces.

The primary unit is a structure developed to eliminate grade-level lines for young children. School systems which have adopted the primary unit have usually done so to permit young children to progress at their own rate of growth over a period of approximately three years without facing the problems of retention or promotion.²³ Good teachers have always helped each child make maximum progress in terms of his own cycle of development, but annual or semi-annual promotions have consistently interfered with the application of such principles. In essence, the primary plan or primary unit eliminates grade levels usually for the first three grades. Children stay with their group for at least three years, and are given time to develop the skills needed for effective participation in school life. Experience has shown that most of those children who would have been retained, in the traditional annual promotion pattern, at the end of the first year have, by the end of three years, progressed so that they are able to move ahead normally, happily, and successfully with their own age group.

In some school systems which have adopted the primary unit, a second unit, known as the intermediate- or upper-grade unit, is also being inaugurated. The same fundamental ideas undergird this development—that children under the guidance of effective teachers will make normal progress over a period of time and that most of the unwholesome results of the graded system can thus be removed. Some flexibility is generally maintained in the primary and intermediate units, so that when a child has not made satisfactory progress by the end of the normal length of time he is held an additional year before moving into the succeeding unit.

The neighborhood school may or may not be organized as a primary unit, but is likely to be. The neighborhood school idea really began in America with the establishment of dame schools in the early days of the New England colonies. Recently, especially in suburban areas, school authorities have been establishing small school centers for young children for such reasons as the following:

1. The neighborhood school eliminates the necessity for transportation and for crossing busy streets. The school is close to the child's home.
2. The neighborhood school provides a more homelike atmosphere for children, because the total enrollment is not likely to be much greater than one hundred.

²³ A short description of the Milwaukee primary plan may be found in Florence C. Kelly, "Can Promotion Practices Give Security to Children?" in *The Primary School* (Bulletin No. 61; Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1952), pp. 30-33.

3. The transition from home to school is more easily made, because the child is not submerged in a large building with hundreds of children.

4. The neighborhood school can be constructed on several ordinary-size lots rather than requiring extensive acreage. With young children and only three or four groups, the site does not need to be large.

5. The neighborhood school, because it provides learning experiences only for young children, seems more able to provide consistently positive and challenging learning experiences without undue pressure from mythical standards.

6. Because the children are young and their needs simple, expensive construction features need not be included in neighborhood schools. In Oklahoma City, for instance, a central intermediate-grade school is ringed with neighborhood schools. The kitchen, which prepares hot lunches for all children, is housed in the large school unit. The food is transported in trucks with containers designed for that purpose.

Undoubtedly, the pressure from rapidly expanding enrollments has stimulated the development of neighborhood schools. There is little doubt, however, that current knowledge about child development indicates the need for small school units for young children. The traditional pattern of "promoting" principals to larger and larger schools, or of basing the principal's salary schedule partly upon the number of pupils served, has resulted frequently in school units of such magnitude that they cannot be justified educationally. The neighborhood school pattern of organization is destined to offset some of the unwholesome practices of the past quarter-century.²⁴

Inter-age Grouping

Another organizational structure which has developed in recent years in an attempt to improve upon the self-contained classroom is known as inter-age grouping. This organizational structure has usually resulted either from having two age groups of such size that they cannot be divided into an equal number of sections, thereby requiring a split grade, or from deliberate attempts by staffs to provide more opportunities for boys and girls to have experiences with older and younger children. In essence, the latter argument recognizes the value of the small school: opportunities for older children to accept special leadership responsibilities, chances for particularly able younger children to work along with older ones and to

²⁴ A survey of the opinions of superintendents, reported in "What Size School Is Best?" *Nation's Schools*, No. 4, 54:59 (October), 1954, indicates that only 14 per cent of the group believed that elementary schools should have more than 500 pupils. Approximately half of the group believed that schools should have from 350 to 500 pupils. No separate results were reported for primary units.

be stimulated by them, and assurance that over a period of years children will have varied roles in the group—from followership to leadership.

Some systems are experimenting with inter-age grouping which places ten six-year-olds, ten seven-year-olds, and ten eight-year-olds in a single classroom. Each year ten new children join the group, and ten progress into another group. Each year different children have opportunity for leadership. Supporters believe that better learning experiences can be provided due to the increased heterogeneity of the group. Additional experimentation is needed before clear-cut answers regarding the effectiveness of such organizational structures can be given. In the meantime, some inter-age grouping will continue to exist in elementary schools because of the number of children to be served in any one age group. Since there is considerable support for the idea of inter-age grouping, the school staff, faced with the necessity of providing a split grade (half of the children from one age level and half from another), should recognize the opportunity for adding to our knowledge about the success of such organizational structures.

In practice, when faced with the necessity of having a combined-grade group, faculties frequently decide that only the better (that is, academically superior) children should be placed in that particular section. Moreover, if the pupil-teacher ratio is high, the teacher accepting the more heterogeneous group is likely to be given a smaller group. Each faculty will need to decide for itself the basis for classification which will be used. The principles enumerated in Chapters 7 and 8 will be helpful.

The Double Session

In periods of rapid population growth, schools are faced with expanding enrollments and insufficient classroom space. While waiting for needed new buildings, many school systems have had to employ the practice of assigning two groups of children to the same classroom each day. There are many variations of this basic organizational pattern. In most instances, one group of children attends school from about 8:00 A.M. until noon, and another group is in the same space from about 12:30 P.M. to 4:30 P.M. Each child, therefore, has a school day of approximately four hours.

Some schools have combined the double-session structure with a carry-over from the platoon school, so that both groups are simultaneously at school for a short period. This period, which may vary from thirty minutes to an hour, is used for activities appropriate to larger-size groups, such as directed play, group singing, and story time. Some school systems, in an attempt to effect economies in teachers' salaries, assigned only one teacher to both groups. Because of the impossible load placed on the teacher, that practice has generally been eliminated. At present, most

schools with groups on half-day sessions furnish a teacher for each group. The teachers are usually required to spend a portion of the other session at school developing needed teaching aids, duplicating materials, planning, and doing routine jobs such as correcting written papers. In some instances the teachers work together very cooperatively, with the teacher who is not on duty providing special help for those who need it, including the gifted children.

While almost everyone agrees that providing only half-day schooling is a makeshift solution, satisfactory only in an emergency, new organizational structures which may point toward better education for all children may result from some of the attempts to improve upon the double-session pattern. It is possible to envision, for instance, two teachers working cooperatively with a group of children for the entire day. This pattern, which is already established at the kindergarten level, may be a way of effectively providing additional guidance for children in elementary schools.

Staffs faced with the necessity of making decisions regarding inauguration of double sessions where none has existed usually are concerned about which groups should have the shorter day. Good arguments exist to support the practice, in an emergency, at any level. For instance, it is possible to argue that, if any groups are placed on double sessions, it should be the younger children, because they really need a shorter school day than older children. In addition, some of the rest time which has to be scheduled for young children can be eliminated in half-day sessions, if a good balanced day is provided. The boys and girls can rest at home.

On the other hand, it is possible to argue that younger children need more guidance than their older brothers and sisters—that, as children learn and apply the basic tools of learning, they should be able to accept responsibility for a considerable portion of their learning activities without teacher guidance. Young children, moreover, are accustomed to a rest period in the afternoon and, consequently, are not alert enough for an accelerated program which is provided in afternoon hours. It would seem most desirable, if this argument is upheld, to place the upper grades on the double sessions.

Answers to such problems cannot be prescribed apart from the school setting. Members of each school staff will need to decide what is best for the particular situation in which they find themselves. Those who are faced with a decision may wish to ask themselves the following questions:

1. Which age groups need a shorter day at school? Can these same age groups maintain alertness and interest in afternoon hours if placed on double sessions?
2. Which age groups have developed sufficient competence in funda-

mental skills to proceed fairly satisfactorily on their own for part of the day?

3. Do some age groups have greater problems in connection with storage of personal belongings, books, and the like?

4. Will it be easier for some staff members to share facilities and equipment than for others?

5. Which teachers need the greatest amount of time away from the group for planning, preparation of materials, and similar teaching tasks?

6. Will it be easier to explain the double sessions to some parent groups than to others? Will it necessarily be better to inaugurate double sessions with those groups to whom it can be explained more easily?

7. What alternatives to double sessions exist? Are double sessions really necessary?

8. What adjustments will have to be made in the program at the various age levels? Are the adjustments generally desirable? Which seem less objectionable?

Ungraded Classes

In recent years many school systems have established, within graded schools, some classes which are generally termed "ungraded." Of the fifty-two cities studied by the U.S. Office of Education, twenty-eight indicated that such classes are provided for slow-learning children.²⁵ The practice is more widespread the larger the community. There is considerable validity to the concept that each child should be stimulated to learn at his own rate. Extension of this idea inevitably results in ungraded classes. The term, however, has come to be applied almost exclusively to special classes for those children who cannot keep up with the pace of the graded program. Principles to consider in arriving at decisions regarding the establishment of such classes are presented in detail in Chapter 8. On the basis of observation, there is little doubt that some children who are not challenged by the usual academic program provided in many elementary schools are having challenging learning experiences in the ungraded classes to which they have been assigned. Establishment of a special organizational pattern to compensate for ineffective teaching in regular classrooms may be necessary. More fundamental curriculum improvement is probably required, however.

Toward a Continuous Program

As we have seen, school organization during the past hundred years has undergone significant change. The establishment of the graded school, near the middle of the nineteenth century, prefaced emphasis upon

²⁵ Bathurst and others, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

standards and development of rigid organizational structures. The pendulum of practice is now moving away from structures which attempt to group children homogeneously toward a concept of continuous progress. Emphasis is being placed on the twelve-grade program as a whole based upon a consistent philosophy and operating toward common goals. It is evident that progress is being made; but, in many school systems, changes in school organization in one segment of the total system have not been followed by needed modification in others. As a consequence, many secondary schools have organizational structures and policies which are almost diametrically in opposition to those being supported in the elementary schools of the same system. While some variation in underlying structure is undoubtedly sound due to the maturity of the learners and the nature of the programs, progress toward greater agreement needs to be made. It is particularly important that teachers in contiguous levels, but in different school units, develop common understandings. Some modification of the organizational structures in each unit may be desirable in order that children will not be caught in situations which will breed insecurity, dissatisfaction, and failure.

THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

As in other areas of responsibility, the principal has great influence upon the structure or organizational pattern which the school uses. In the past and too frequently even today, many principals have decided the type of structure which they believe to be best, and they have imposed that plan upon the staff and the pupils. Certainly, the principal should have ideas concerning organization, and he probably should be the person who knows most about various possibilities. It seems obvious that the principles of leadership, enumerated in Chapter 1, apply as decisions are made concerning organization. Principals need, especially, to recall that democratic leaders

Use the basic concerns of the group as the beginning point for study and action.

Make sure that information needed for sound decisions is available and is considered before judgments are made.

Create situations in which divergent opinions are freely expressed.

Involve those who are affected by decisions in deliberations leading to action.

Make sure that when decisions are made the implied action is subsequently taken.

Remember that whatever is done should be related to improved education for the individual child.

Determining the organization of the elementary school is not the sole prerogative of the principal. It is a concern of the total staff and of the parents. Changes in organizational structure should be made only after careful discussion and consideration of probable effects. Leadership, not domination, is the proper role of the elementary school principal as decisions regarding organization are made.

As a principal works with his staff in developing an effective elementary school program, decisions will have to be made concerning the organization of the school. That which is satisfactory for one community is not necessarily the best pattern for another. The authors believe that the following principles are basic to the development of an effective organizational structure, and should be used as guides or as evaluative criteria by which present patterns may be judged.

1. *School organization should support the values which the staff and parents have agreed upon.* Application of this principle requires that the individual school should have considerable autonomy in developing a satisfactory structure for operation. Those responsible for providing coordination among various schools of a system will, of course, continue to strive to develop common viewpoints. Forcing structures upon schools, however, will not achieve desired results. Not all school staffs and not all parent groups are ready for some of the modifications of the graded structure which have been presented in this chapter. Those schools which are ready to move to the primary unit or to continuing-teacher plans should be permitted and encouraged to do so.
2. *School organization should facilitate development of the instructional program desired.* There is little doubt that organizational patterns can support or prevent the development of a superior instructional program. The organization adopted should always be regarded as means to an end—never an end in itself. Structures should be modified as needed in order to achieve the program which the total community, including the professional staff, deems desirable.
3. *School organization should be based upon what is known about how children learn best and should be responsive to research developments.* As the body of knowledge about the nature of learning grows, patterns of organization should be modified as necessary. Plans for grouping children, purchasing supplies and equipment, assigning teachers to groups, and scheduling the learning day should not be based upon tradition or the principal's pet idea of what is best—but upon knowledge about human growth and development.
4. *The organizational structure should attempt to provide the best possible learning opportunities for each child.* The basic value of American

democracy is the supreme worth of the individual. Decisions concerning school organization should be made in the light of the individual child's welfare. No structure is satisfactory which does not provide the maximum opportunity for each boy and each girl to progress at his optimum rate. Group welfare must, of course, be considered simultaneously; but the basic test of excellence when evaluating school organization must continue to be "Does each child have maximum opportunities for desirable growth?"

5. *The school organization should contribute to continuity of learning experiences for children and youth.* As Dewey pointed out many years ago, good learning programs provide for continuous growth toward desired goals.²⁶ The organization in any school should, therefore, assist the child in building upon previous experiences and should also lead him on to additional learnings. No organizational structure in and of itself can guarantee continuous learning experiences for children, but the structure can contribute to or interfere with the possibilities for continuity.

6. *School organization should provide a great measure of flexibility and responsible freedom for each teacher.* Rigid schedules, inflexible application of standards and policies, and similar restrictions may, on the surface, seem necessary for ease of administration; but, in the long run, these procedures usually cause more problems than they solve. Just as the individual school should be given considerable autonomy in the development of a program which is satisfactory for the neighborhood and children served, so also should each teacher provide learning experiences designed for his particular group. Agreement on basic policies is necessary, but implementation of those policies should be the responsibility of each teacher.

7. *School organization should make possible the best use of available resources and the coordination of learning opportunities.* Plans should be made so that the space, equipment, personnel, and instructional materials available will be effectively utilized. If, for instance, the school has one motion picture projector, two teachers cannot use it to show different films at the same moment. Coordination and planning for use of resources are required.

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDY

1. In Mythical City, U.S.A., the fifth and sixth grades of the elementary schools have been departmentalized for many years. Supporters of the plan say that it pre-

²⁶ John Dewey, *Experience and Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938), pp. 23-52.

pare children for the school experiences they are going to meet in junior high school, and that it insures higher quality of instruction. Teachers in the Ideal Elementary School are not satisfied with the disjointed, routinized school day which children have in the departmentalized program, and have decided to place the fifth and sixth grades on a self-contained classroom basis. Should this one school be permitted to change from an organizational pattern which is followed by other schools in the city? Will the problems of adjustment to be faced by the children when they enter junior high school be increased if departmentalization in the upper grades of the elementary school is eliminated? What steps should be taken by the staff in implementing their decision? Can the self-contained classroom idea be justified at the sixth-grade level?

2. In Boomtown, which is located in an expanding industrial section of the country, population growth is so rapid that school construction has not kept pace with the number of children enrolled in the schools. Mr. Brown, principal of Shadyside Elementary School, knows that he must find space next year for two more groups of six-year-olds than the building is designed to house. He inventories the possibilities and comes up with the following list:

- (a) Place the first grades on double sessions.
- (b) Knock out partitions in the principal's office, converting that space into a small classroom, and place the other class in the space now provided as a central library for the school.
- (c) Place the upper grades on a platoon-type schedule, combining groups for more effective utilization of space in the lunchroom and playroom, thus freeing one room. Utilize the former central library as the other room.
- (d) Place the sixth grades on double sessions, requiring a great deal of homework from the children, thus saving one room. Utilize the library for the other room.
- (e) Transfer the sixth grades to the junior high school where space is available.

Which of the possibilities seems to be the best solution to the problem Mr. Brown faces? How should he proceed? Should he decide which is best and inform the staff? Whom should he contact? What steps of a long-term nature should be taken to help solve the problem of increasing enrollments?

3. Mrs. Anderson has taught first grade in Cedar City Elementary School for the past ten years. Last year Miss Nesbitt joined the staff and is working with the seven-year-olds. The teachers have worked well together, and many times during the year their groups have jointly experienced the same activities. Last Monday they went to Mrs. McQuiddy, their principal, and proposed that Mrs. Anderson should remain with her group for a second year and Miss Nesbitt should start the new group of six-year-olds, remaining with them for two years. Mrs. McQuiddy was pleased and together they planned strategy. Which of the following steps do you believe they should take? What other plans should be made?

- (a) They decided to check first with the general supervisor just to make sure that administrative support would be forthcoming.
- (b) They thought the idea should be presented to the total faculty of Cedar City

Elementary School for discussion. Although the plan will not affect directly other members of the staff, they felt that everyone should be informed.

- (c) They decided to discuss the proposal with the executive committee of the P.T.A. and to ask them for suggestions concerning implementation.
- (d) They felt it would be desirable to invite the parents of five- and six-year-olds to a special meeting for explanation and discussion of the proposal.
- (e) In preparation for all the above steps, they felt it wise to prepare a written statement of the advantages and disadvantages of the plan.
- (f) They planned to contact the newspaper editor, prior to the meeting with parents, asking him to have a reporter at the meeting.

4. Several years ago, after a series of discussions with parents, the staff of Eubank Elementary School decided to institute a primary unit plan of organization in the lower grades. Everyone seemed to react positively to the new structure for several years, but now that the children who came through the primary unit are in the upper grades considerable dissatisfaction is being voiced by their teachers. Moreover, the parents who understood the primary unit plan when it was introduced no longer have children in the lower grades. Some over-the-back-fence mumbling by parents about the primary unit has been reported to Mr. Anderson, the principal. What should he do? Ignore the dissatisfaction as normal? Decide that the primary unit sounds good in theory but doesn't work in practice? Suggest ways for Mr. Anderson to proceed.

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

- Association for Childhood Education International, *The Primary School*. Bulletin No. 61; Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1952.
- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Organizing the Elementary School for Living and Learning*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1947.
- Bathurst, Effie G., and others, *Organization and Supervision of Elementary Education in 100 Cities*. Bulletin No. 11, U.S. Office of Education; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1949.
- Bathurst, Effie G., and Jane Franseth, *Modern Ways in One- and Two-Teacher Schools*. Bulletin No. 18, U.S. Office of Education; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1951.
- Caswell, Hollis L., and A. Wellesley Foshay, *Education in the Elementary School*. New York: American Book Company, 1950.
- Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Children*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948.
- Hilton, Ernest, *Rural School Management*. New York: American Book Company, 1949.
- Olson, Willard C., *Child Development*. New York: D. C. Heath & Company, 1949.
- Otto, Henry J., *Organizational and Administrative Practices in Elementary Schools*

- in the United States*. Publication No. 4544, November 22, 1945; Austin: The University of Texas, 1945.
- National Society for the Study of Education, *American Education in the Postwar Period: Structural Reorganization*. Forty-fourth Yearbook; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Part II.
- , *Education in Rural Communities*. Fifty-first Yearbook; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952. Part II.
- Research Division, National Education Association, "Trends in City School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 27, No. 1 (February), 1949.
- Wiley, Roy DeVerl, *Guidance in Elementary Education*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952.
- Wofford, Kate, *Teaching in Small Schools*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946.

- I believe in life—as fact of experience and as value in experience.
- I believe in the process of human living—where life rises to self-consciousness and reflective thought.
- I believe in progress—the possibility of human life increasingly achieving its potentialities.
- I believe in the slow process of growth—the method of life itself—that develops through conserving past achievements.
- I believe in individual men—in the inviolability of the self.
- I believe in society—as the medium that makes possible the individual, as the process of developing like-mindedness through the sharing of experience.
- I believe in harmony—as the condition in which this process of human living can be advanced.
- I believe in thinking—as the reflective creative process by which men more effectively advance the process of life.
- I believe in right and wrong—as activities that further or hinder the process of human living.
- I believe in education—as the process of helping individuals to live more and more intelligently and harmoniously.

—S. G. Brinkley, "John Dewey's Universal," *Educational Theory*,
1:131-133 (August), 1951.

Section C

EFFECTIVE EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP
FOSTERS SERVICE TO THE
INDIVIDUAL PUPIL

The long quotation on the reverse page not only emphasizes the importance of seeking common ground for decision making but also lays the bases for mutual understanding and cooperative action. The question might well be raised: What have these matters to do with pupil personnel policies and services? Obviously, pupil services in our elementary schools grow directly out of the thinking, planning, and acting of teachers, principals, and superintendents. The primary concerns of these three groups are not always in harmony. In fact, they frequently are in serious discord. It follows, then, that the welfare of our school children suffers to the degree that educational personnel fail to reach agreements that reflect best use of intelligence. This section, therefore, analyzes problems closely related to the guidance of children from kindergarten to high school and the role of the principal in bringing sound group judgment to their solution.

In administrative preoccupation with books, desks, and hallways, it is too easy to forget that the reason for the whole enterprise—buildings, curricula, teachers, and budgets—is children. Unless worthwhile things happen to, for, and with children, unless individual potentiality is nurtured, unless the life of each child is improved over what it would have been without a school, the educational venture is in vain. The three succeeding chapters are devoted to some specifics that must be well ordered if pupil welfare is to result.

7~

Leadership in Developing Pupil Personnel Policies

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL, in seeking to improve pupil personnel policies in his school, has two sets of considerations to satisfy. The first of these is providing leadership to the faculty and other persons in determining what these policies shall be. The second is the development of a personal philosophy regarding such matters as pupil guidance, promotions, discipline, and so on, and the acquisition of knowledge about research findings and sound practice pertaining to them. Both are challenging. They test the worth of a leader.

The leadership process and the principles governing it have been discussed in detail earlier in this volume. They are not re-enumerated here; but they are used. They are applied to the task of helping those involved find answers to some of the most vexing problems that plague the elementary school. This chapter, then, seeks to identify and clarify these problems, to review briefly some of the significant thinking and research pertaining to them, to refer the reader to supplementary materials, to illuminate present practice, and to suggest fruitful next steps. Throughout, an attempt is made to illustrate leadership principles and clarify the role of the elementary school principal.

PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

Some pupil personnel problems are persistent with elementary school faculties. Here is a list organized from the problems identified for study by faculty groups:

Identification, Admission, and Orientation of New Pupils

1. Identifying preschool children in the service area of the school.
2. Preparing those who are eligible to enter school at the next term (and their parents) for school entrance.
3. Orienting beginners during the opening days of the term.
4. Orienting newcomers who enter school throughout the year.

Pupil Growth through the Grades

1. Mental growth: When is it adequate?
2. Physical growth: What is our responsibility?
3. Emotional growth: How much time can be justified in dealing with childhood problems of emotional adjustment?
4. Social growth: Is concern for the social development of children one of our responsibilities?
5. Spiritual growth: Isn't this really the job of the church?

Marking, Recording, and Reporting

1. Can a marking system be devised to tell the whole story of pupil growth?
2. What kinds of records should we keep, and do we really need all we have?
3. What do parents need to know about their children's growth, and how may information best be conveyed to them?

Classifying Pupils for Instruction

1. How should the total school population be divided among the teachers available?
2. How should children who deviate markedly from others be grouped for instruction?
3. How should pupils be grouped for instruction within each classroom?

Pupil Progress through the Grades

1. What is happening to children as a result of our present promotion practices?
2. What alternative policies are open to us?

Some Special Guidance Problems

1. How may behavior problems in school and classrooms be taken care of?
2. What special resources might be made available or called upon to help us?

The Transition into Junior or Senior High School

1. When is a pupil ready for high school?
2. How may the transition best be facilitated?

The list does not exhaust all the problems relating to pupil personnel that an elementary school faculty faces. But each of them appears so frequently in teachers' lists of "problem demons" that it may well be termed persistent. The next two chapters examine the nature of these persistent problems. Space limitations do not permit extensive treatment of any single problem. The reader will be referred to research articles, books, and monographs that deal extensively with each problem under discussion.

The treatment here is presented with three specific purposes in view: (1) to assist the elementary school principal in his development of a guidance philosophy that will aid him not only in finding solutions to the seven major problems dealt with here but also in dealing with others of a related nature; (2) to further the elementary school principal's knowledge of theory, research, and practice regarding these seven problems; and (3) to assist the elementary school principal in providing effective leadership in school improvement.

IDENTIFICATION, ADMISSION, AND ORIENTATION OF NEW PUPILS

Finding School Beginners

One of the most difficult problems for the 1950's and 1960's is determining the number of children to plan for in the first step of the elementary school unit, be it nursery school, kindergarten, or first grade. Thoughtful, studied predictions following World War II warned of a high point in first-grade enrollment about 1952 and then a gradual leveling-off. But 1952 had not been reached before it became obvious even to casual observers that increasingly higher enrollments could be anticipated for several years hence.

The problem of identifying next year's beginners is complicated by local factors. Communities, like oceans, seem to have an ebb and a flood tide. Construction of a new hospital is begun and, within a year, 150 new homes are ready for occupancy in the adjoining neighborhoods. Or, the easing of zoning restrictions brings about a steady exodus of families and an influx of transients, few of whom have children. Entire new communities sometimes are conceived and born within a period of several months. Park Forest, Illinois, is an interesting postwar illustration. A new and, at that time, inexperienced school superintendent suddenly found

himself with a new—and also inexperienced—school board, a rapidly developing school district, and potential enrollees, but no schools or teachers!

The first step in making provision for beginners is to become well informed about the community served by the school. Here are some of the matters with which the elementary school principal should be thoroughly acquainted:

1. **RESIDENTIAL STABILITY.** Has all of the residential property been taken up, or are there large vacant tracts for potential home building? Is the average age of residents increasing and the birth rate declining? If so, we can expect a steadily decreasing school population, other factors remaining constant.

2. **ZONING REGULATIONS.** What are the existing regulations? Are there any bids pending to have these regulations changed for commercial or industrial purposes?

3. **BUILDING PERMITS GRANTED.** What kind of construction is contemplated, and what is likely to be the ultimate effect on school enrollment?

4. **GOVERNMENT CONTRACTS LET.** Nuclear energy development projects at Oak Ridge, Tennessee, and Augusta, Georgia, aircraft factories in California, naval and military establishments in Maryland, and so on, have had devastating effects on school planning. Many school leaders have found it necessary to direct their energies to constructing plants and travelling to Washington for government assistance rather than to developing the instructional program.

5. **SCHOOL DISTRICT BUILDING AND ZONING PLANS.** School superintendents must be close to their principals, bringing them into planning for district-wide provision for the educational needs of young people.

Being informed on the above conditions provides school leaders with a picture of general trends. The next step is to secure needed facts for opening school in September. A thorough door-to-door census probably will provide the most accurate count of new children to be planned for, and usually is adequate procedure for identifying school beginners in rural areas. Both parents and school children can be of great assistance. Teams of children, organized under older children or parents, can cover a large territory quickly. The opportunity to use the census in developing sound public relations should be recognized. Teachers may find it desirable to do the necessary visiting themselves. The time spent in using this opportunity to explain school regulations, making suggestions for the preparation of children for school, and in just getting acquainted may pay for itself over and over again.

Census data, once accumulated and interpreted against the background

of essential information listed earlier, permit accurate planning for the opening of school in the fall. It matters little if we plan for eighty-four and ninety actually appear. We know that three teachers are needed to take care of the incoming group, provided twenty-four repeaters are not left from the preceding year. Even this amount of unreliability permits reasonably accurate ordering of supplies, textbooks, desks, and so on. Making adequate provision for next year's beginners is the first major step in a sound pupil personnel program.

Making Preschool Preparations

Preschool orientation activities for beginners and their parents have tremendous potential for good and, like many activities conducted in the name of learning, for harm. "Spring roundups," for example, are carried on each spring throughout the country with at least the following purposes in mind:

1. Identifying those children who will enter kindergarten or first grade next fall.
2. Introducing children and parents to the teachers they will come to know over the years.
3. Helping children and parents become familiar with the building and classrooms.
4. Discussing school regulations and requirements.
5. Supplying information to assist in preparing for school.
6. Familiarizing both groups with resources that will be available to them.
7. Providing initial health precautions such as inoculations.
8. Presenting an opportunity for answering questions related to school concerns.
9. Insuring an initially pleasant school contact.¹

A school faculty that thinks through its reasons for holding the spring roundup probably will conclude that the last purpose is both more important and more realistic than any other. Once having arrived at this viewpoint, teachers will see more clearly what should be done about this school activity that threatens to become anchored thoughtlessly in tradition. It is worth the effort only if it is a positive force in public relations. Given both a glass of orange juice and a shot in the arm on his first contact with school, which is a child more likely to remember and to associate with school? Fearful of the answer, many schools have abolished

¹ For a kindergarten teacher's report of how one school made visitation pleasant for next year's beginners, see Clara M. Malvey, "School and Home Assist in Kindergarten Induction," *Educational Leadership*, 12:350-351 (March), 1955.

the dispensing of health measures at this time. Parents are acquainted with health regulations and are requested to take their children to family physicians before school opens. Public health facilities frequently are made available at various times throughout the spring and summer.

Faculties desiring to improve preschool orientation may find the following suggestions helpful.

1. Determine in faculty meetings the specific purposes to be achieved.
2. At this initial meeting or as soon afterwards as seems desirable, bring both parents and children into the planning. Parents of first-graders will be particularly helpful because of the recency of their own need to know school policy.
3. Set up an orientation committee composed of teachers, parents, and children to plan activities to accomplish the purposes in mind.
4. Arrange a series of activities designed to achieve different purposes. It may be well to plan a morning for preschool mothers and another for both mothers and children. An evening activity for fathers may be highly desirable.
5. Be thorough. These first contacts are of extreme significance in establishing a firm bond of understanding.
6. Provide for some kind of evaluative device that will assure planning next year to overcome this year's shortcomings.

Orienting New Pupils to School

How did you face your first day of school? Did you come in resolutely with a bit of a swagger designed to disguise the quaking you really felt? Or did you turn and bolt for home the moment you set eyes on the building? Did you change schools somewhere along the way? Did you come through the first day at the new school unscathed?

That first day in school, whether it be the first in a new school or simply the first, must be prepared for and watched over like the birth of a baby. For the September entrance groups, some schools prefer a gradual induction, wherein the school day is progressively lengthened, and a stagger system whereby a few new children come each day until the entire group gradually assembles. Some schools encourage all mothers to attend on the first day and to remain throughout a brief introductory session. Big brother and sister schemes have been used with considerable success. The important consideration is that every precaution be taken to prevent fear, tension, and traumatic incidents. Those opening days must be filled with wholesome activity and directed toward routinizing the inanimate and humanizing the animate.

The big brother and sister scheme is helpful in inducting newcomers to

higher grades. Too frequently, frightened newcomers are ushered into a frenzy of Monday morning activity. More newcomers arrive on Monday than on any other day. Monday is a popular day, too, for the return of absentees. In too many elementary schools, the vicinity of the principal's office at 8:45 on Monday mornings is a scene of utter chaos. Principals and their faculties must work out a system for the induction of newcomers that is designed to provide both orderly handling of routine and sympathetic attention to new pupils, few of whom lack qualms and misgivings in varying degrees. At least the following should be provided for:

1. Registration procedures that assure documentation of essential personal data.
2. Informal introduction into the new classroom. Suddenly facing the appraising eyes of thirty fifth-graders can be a devastating experience for many sensitive children. It is much better if the newcomer can meet his new teacher first and then be introduced to other children as they arrive. It may be well to delay the entrance of newcomers until a break if before-nine entrance is not possible.
3. Orientation to school facilities and regulations. It is better to do this as the need arises than to overwhelm the newcomer with more information than he can master at one sitting.
4. Careful observation for at least several days to make sure that the new pupil is making friends and fitting into the new environment.
5. Systematic checking of previous school background. Some children move so frequently that it is impossible to gather in any one school data that might be used in their guidance. Unfortunately, children from transient families frequently are in most need of help. A school does not need to start from the beginning if it is successful in securing previous school records of academic progress, health, attendance, and so on.

The school principal must provide leadership to his faculty in planning adequate programs of orientation for new children. The end in view is happy induction of these children into the various activities of the school. Expediency and order are desirable and will be natural concomitants of any carefully thought through plan. But order and system to the detriment of a child's welfare are to be deplored. Because children are better able to see what other children see, children should be brought into the planning. Parents, particularly those who have been through the experience of bringing their children to a new school, have much to offer in this planning. It is not for the principal to determine orientation procedures. It is for the principal to provide leadership in establishing the planning framework within which the best possible orientation procedures may be developed.

PUPIL GROWTH THROUGH THE GRADES

It is recognized that the job of providing for maximum pupil growth through the grades is the job of the classroom teacher. But the child's progress through the elementary school must be, to the utmost degree possible, a continuous, sequential experience. It must not be a succession of stops and starts, perhaps even of regression, brought about by differing expectations from grade to grade. Smooth progress and easy transition from grade to grade are possible only when the entire faculty arrives together at some common agreements. It is the principal's responsibility to provide the leadership necessary to the achievement of such agreements.

Strange to say, it is failure to recognize certain simple generalizations about the development of children that results in much questionable practice. Probably it is because they are repeated so frequently and accepted so rapidly—at least at the verbal level—that these ideas fail to direct our practice, let alone fire our imagination. A school faculty seeking to improve school personnel policies would do well to reinforce its belief in these principles that are virtually laws.

1. Every child is distinctly different from every other child in most aspects of his growth and development. The elimination of these differences is neither desirable nor feasible.

2. Within any given child the various aspects of growth—mental, physical, and so on—proceed at distinctly differentiated rates. Although these factors influence each other, they do not proceed in the same way or at the same rate. Advanced physical development, for example, is no clear indication of equally advanced mental development.

3. Growth proceeds at a relentless, predetermined cycle that can be modified, but that cannot be changed in general character and sequence.

4. Growth and development are characterized by a readiness for certain types of refinement in human behavior. This readiness permits some external modification. It is the key to timing the teaching process for economical learning.

5. The human organism at any given time is a unique combination of factors both inherited and acquired. Problems of conditioning this organism are complicated by the complexity of factors that produced it and the difficulty of determining how these and other factors will operate in the process of change that accompanies learning and teaching.

6. Children differ from one another only in degrees within a broad, common framework of likeness. Changes that take place in the physical organism interact with cultural patterns to pose a series of "developmental

tasks" for children.² Certain guideposts are thus provided for understanding growth and development.³

Once having set forth some common points of view regarding the children for whom policies are to be developed, a faculty is in an advantageous position to appraise and improve present practices in guiding the various phases of pupil development.

Mental and Academic Growth

Six-year-old children entering the first grade reveal a minimum mental age spread of four years, with a few children at each extreme further stretching out the over-all spread. Youngsters who list their chronological years at six but show as little as four years or as much as eight years of mental growth on standard criteria of measurement are too common in the first grades of America to be described as unique phenomena. Test your incoming first-graders next September with an acceptable device such as the Stanford-Binet Tests of Intelligence, and you will find this spread to exist. And it will not disappear over the years; it will increase. Measure your sixth or seventh grades, and you will find this to be true. The range on general intelligence will be six, seven, or even eight years and, on specific aspects of intelligence, even greater.

These facts confront us with an irrefutable truth. Children coming to us in the kindergarten or first grade are not at the same place mentally. They cannot be expected to be at the same place three or four years hence. To talk about "adequacy of mental growth" in absolute terms for any group of children at any given time is to engage in meaningless, unrealistic, academic theorizing. Adequacy has meaning only when we refer to this one particular child at this specific moment. Truth permits no other alternatives.

Now let us look briefly at the academic facts of life before relating the mental to the academic. First-graders come to us with a spread in posses-

² Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools* (1950 Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1950), Chaps. 6 and 7.

³ For a further discussion of these principles, together with illustrations of appropriate and inappropriate school practice, see John I. Goodlad, "As We Know So Must We Do," *Childhood Education*, 29:65-68 (October), 1952.

References for increasing understanding of children include the following: Willard C. Olsen, *Child Development* (New York: D. C. Heath & Company, 1949); Alfred L. Baldwin, *Behavior and Child Development* (New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1955); Gladys G. Millie Almy, *Child Development* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1955); William W. Jenkins, Helen Shacter, and William W. Bauer, *These Are Your Children* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Company, 1953); and Arnold Gesell and Frances L. Ilg, *The Child from Five to Ten* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946).

sion of knowledge that roughly approximates their spread in mental age. Bright children may not all possess knowledge at the high level of their mental age. Slow-learners frequently will know much more than one anticipates. But the over-all spread exists, nevertheless. This is in part because natural intelligence and the possession of knowledge tend to correlate, particularly during early school years. It is due in part, also, to the fact that we have not yet learned to differentiate clearly between pure intelligence and accumulated knowledge. Allison Davis⁴ has demonstrated the effects of environmental factors on intelligence test results, as has Granville Johnson⁵ in studies of bilingualism.

The fact remains that children come to us with a spread in attainments. They leave us to go into the secondary school with an even greater spread. But unfortunately this spread in attainments seldom is as great as the spread in various capacities indicates that it should be. Other factors being equal, good teaching is teaching that facilitates each child working at the level of his ability. The teacher who boasts, "They came to me at the beginning of the year so very different, but now they're all working at the fourth-grade level," is making an unwitting confession of poor teaching.

Frequently a spread in academic attainments that is smaller than children's abilities warrant may be explained by examining the upper end of the ability scale. Many children of high I.Q. will be found to be achieving at a considerably lower level. This is due in part to the necessity of grouping large numbers of children together for instructional purposes. There simply is not time to challenge and stimulate the intellectual potential of the very bright. It is due in perhaps greater degree to our whole fallacious notion of minimum standards and grade requirements. The bright child easily achieves these standards and is rewarded accordingly, frequently seeing no need to exert himself beyond these modest but approved levels. Interestingly enough, it frequently is the rock-bound traditionalist, self-martyred in the cause of holding up academic standards, who firmly blocks the road to an adequate education for our intellectually capable children. In a veritable orgy of muddled thinking, he decries the elimination of arbitrary grade standards and bewails an educational system that fails to cultivate our best minds and challenge aptitude. He forgets that grade standards designed to challenge even only the top quartile of the school population—standards obviously unfair for the remaining

⁴ Allison Davis, *Social Class Influence upon Learning* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1948).

⁵ Granville B. Johnson, Jr., "Bilingualism as Measured by a Reaction-Time Technique and the Relationship between a Language and a Non-language Intelligence Quotient," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 82:3-9 (January), 1953.

See also, John L. Stenquist, "Intelligence and Cultural Differences," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, 31:14-19 (October), 1953.

75 per cent—fail to challenge the top decile. By contrast, elimination of arbitrary grade standards and minimum essentials is designed to require each child to work as closely as possible to his ability level. It is designed, further, to eliminate the false rewards that too often accompany easy attainment of arbitrary standards, with all the attendant demoralizing effects of such practice. If this be “soft” pedagogy, we have indeed stepped through the looking glass into a strange world of confused meaning that beguiles our reasoning and confounds our imagination beyond Alice’s wildest dreams.

It is recommended by the authors that elementary school principals seeking to assure maximum mental growth and academic progress for children lead their faculties in providing for the following:

1. Careful intelligence testing at several points in a child’s elementary school years. Finances will in part determine the frequency with which this can be done. Some schools find it desirable to give such tests every other year beginning with the second grade. Group tests⁶ permit a rapid screening and are sufficiently accurate for most practical purposes. The Stanford-Binet (individual) Tests of Intelligence, of course, are most accurate and are helpful in checking doubtful cases after group screening, but they are very time-consuming and may be used only by specially trained personnel.

2. Administration of standard achievement tests best suited for the curriculum organization of the school.⁷ These should be given at approximately the same time the intelligence tests are administered.

3. General comparisons, for guidance purposes, between estimates of ability and actual attainment. Most teachers and principals are familiar with the method of computing an intelligence quotient:

$$\frac{\text{M.A. (mental age)}}{\text{C.A. (chronological age)}} \times 100 = \text{I.Q.}$$

The achievement quotient is computed in the same way:

$$\frac{\text{A.A. (achievement age)}}{\text{C.A. (chronological age)}} \times 100 = \text{A.Q.}$$

These measurements taken at the same time for an entire classroom permit some useful interpretations. It frequently is found, for example, that children of low I.Q. achieve at a correspondingly low level. In other words, these children are doing all they reasonably can be expected to do.

⁶ See O. K. Buros, *Third Mental Measurements Yearbook* (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1948), for impartial appraisals of available group tests.

⁷ *Ibid.*

Children and teachers should rejoice together, because the learning-teaching process is fulfilling all reasonable expectations for it. At the other end of the scale, unusually able children seem not to be reaching normal expectations for them. Why is this so? The curriculum is not challenging them? The tests are not valid or reliable? Sometimes, children whose ability appears only average are achieving at unusually high levels. Why is this so? Analysis of several kinds of data in this way permits greater insight into the learning processes of individual children.⁸ Such analysis does not permit or justify arbitrary classification of pupils as "bright" or "dull." It does provide a beginning place for seeking causes of learning disability.

One central purpose of pupil personnel policies is to identify those children who most need help. Techniques such as the above are of great assistance in accomplishing this end. Some teachers and principals will argue that because of the harm inflicted by too literal interpretation of tests such devices have no place in the elementary school program. It must be pointed out, contrariwise, that many children desperately needing help have not been helped simply because the fact that they were having difficulties, let alone the nature of these difficulties, was never determined. The professional worker knows the limitations and appropriate use of his tools and employs them along with whatever insights and understandings are available to him in rendering the best possible judgment permitted by the circumstances.⁹

Physical Growth

The elementary school is not a medical health agency. Nevertheless, since it is impossible to divide the growth of the child into a number of pieces and say we will be responsible for this but not for that, it becomes necessary for the school to develop personnel policies that include provision for health concerns.¹⁰ It becomes obvious that systems and regulations worked out by school faculties alone, however well, will not work without the cooperation of parents and pupils. The inclusion of representatives from these groups, then, in the planning and ultimate dissemination of information becomes essential. Whatever public health resources exist will need to be included. Children, classroom teachers,

⁸ See E. C. Hall, "The Proper Use of Test Results," *Elementary School Journal*, 54:450-455 (April), 1954.

⁹ Granville B. Johnson, Jr., "Factors to Be Considered in the Interpretation of Intelligence-Test Scores," *Elementary School Journal*, 54:145-150 (November), 1953.

¹⁰ Research more and more is revealing the possible relation between physical and other aspects of development. See, for example, Charles Wenar, "The Effects of a Motor Handicap on Personality: 1. The Effects on Level of Aspiration," *Child Development*, 25:287-294 (December), 1954.

mothers, and public health nurses, doctors, and dentists may be brought into effective teams for conducting vision surveys, dental checkups, and immunization programs.¹¹

The key figure at school in guiding the physical growth of the child is the classroom teacher. He sees his charges in the morning as they come in and an appraising eye can quickly detect unusually pale faces, running noses, peculiar squints, or an outbreak of spots. He knows about their learning stresses, emotional disturbances, and social problems, all of which are related to one another and to this area of physical growth. The informed middle-grade teacher knows that most children at this age grow more during the fall of the year than during the winter and spring.¹² The primary teacher knows that preschool growth has been rapid and that a succession of childhood diseases may be anticipated. The upper-grade teacher knows that the advent of puberty will be followed by an upsurge in growth. All of these teachers, if they really know their business, will expect a letdown in academic learning following a growth spurt rather than during its early stages. One vital responsibility of the elementary school principal is to lead and encourage his teachers in the acquisition and wise use of vital information pertaining to the physical growth of boys and girls.

Emotional and Social Growth

The public elementary school is not a mental health clinic, just as it is not, as previously pointed out, a medical health center. But the fact still remains that the school cannot make real progress in furthering children's academic growth until certain emotional blocks—some of them set up by the school itself—are removed.¹³ Likewise, whether or not a child is accepted by his peers and how he feels about his acceptance or rejection by them, are potent influences in the learning process. In the interests of providing a school environment that is conducive to wholesome social and emotional development, the elementary school principal is urged to take leadership in the following:

1. Collecting evidence that appears symptomatic of emotional or social maladjustment among children. Excessive seclusiveness, aggressiveness, truancy, tattling, bullying, and so forth, should be specially noted. The

¹¹ For more extensive discussion, with special emphasis upon the principal's role, see Chap. 9.

¹² See Cecil V. Millard, *Child Growth and Development in the Elementary School* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1951), p. 70.

¹³ Research has indicated again and again the high incidence of emotional disturbance in many instances of learning disability. See, for example, Charles C. Dahlberg, Florence Roswell, and Jeanne Chall, "Psychotherapeutic Principles as Applied to Remedial Reading," *Elementary School Journal*, 53:211-217 (December), 1951.

process of identification will be aided by using such devices as the California Test of Personality, the Haggerty-Olsen-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules, and so on¹⁴ but, again, care must be exercised in administration and interpretation. The time may not be too far distant when useful projective devices such as the Rorschach and Thematic Apperception Tests will be available to us. At the present time, however, most elementary schools do not have access to the necessary trained personnel. Professionally minded teachers already are making good use of sociometric devices in identifying those youngsters needing help in the social area of their development.

2. Conducting inventories of points of undue pressure in the school's program and organization that indicate need for policy revision.

3. Planning long-term programs designed not only to remedy school policy but also to bring about increased teacher awareness of social and emotional growth considerations in the classroom.

Moral and Spiritual Growth

The question of the school's responsibility in providing for the child's moral and spiritual growth is much debated.¹⁵ There is relatively little disagreement over whether or not the elementary school should concern itself with such matters. There is general consent that it should, ranging from rather mild concern to insistence that provision for moral and spiritual development must be a primary commitment of the elementary school. Much controversy exists around two aspects of the problem and, obviously, it is meaningless to deal with the second until a stand has been taken on the first. (1) What constitutes an adequate commitment to the development of moral and spiritual values?¹⁶ (2) How can this commitment best be fulfilled through the organization of the elementary school's program?

The Educational Policies Commission made a significant contribution to the first of these questions by enumerating moral and spiritual values thought to be generally agreed upon by the American people.¹⁷ The re-

¹⁴ See Buros, *op. cit.*

¹⁵ For a discussion of some of the legal questions involved, see Warren E. Gauerke, "Religion and the Public Schools: Some Legal Problems," *School and Society*, 75:401-404 (June 28), 1952.

For an analysis of four alternatives regarding the role of religion in education, see F. Ernest Johnson, "The Role of Religion in General Education," *Teachers College Record*, 51:222-232 (January), 1950.

¹⁶ For formulations concerning the place of values in American education, our American heritage in regard to values, and the meaning of value, see *California Journal of Elementary Education*, 23:141-192 (February), 1955. The entire issue is devoted to questions of value in the elementary school.

¹⁷ Educational Policies Commission, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1951), pp. 18-30. See Chap. 5, pp. 102-103, for a summary of these values.

port attempts to answer the second question posed above, too. It suggests that schools can actively promote moral and spiritual values by

1. Defining as goals the accepted moral and spiritual values in our society.
2. Encouraging and helping the individual teacher.
3. Giving attention to moral and spiritual values in teacher education.
4. Teaching these moral and spiritual values at every opportunity.
5. Utilizing all of the school's resources.
6. Devoting sufficient time and staff to wholesome personal relationships.
7. Assuming an attitude of friendly sympathy toward the religious beliefs and practices of students.
8. Promoting religious tolerance actively.
9. Teaching about religion as an important fact in our culture.¹⁸

It is when the specific issue of religion is injected that conflagrations are engendered.¹⁹ The Bureau of Educational Research and Service of the University of North Carolina identified five alternatives that represent positions commonly held by various individuals and groups:²⁰

1. Avoid all religious activity.
2. Have simple activities such as daily devotionals but avoid controversial issues.
3. Have optional courses in Bible in which denominational differences are avoided.
4. Have optional courses in comparative religion which deal with controversial issues freely.
5. Have optional courses in religion and allow free discussion of religion in all classes.

The elementary school principal cannot avoid the very practical issues involved in determining and fulfilling the elementary school's responsibility in providing for the moral and spiritual growth of children. If he keeps his head in a figurative sandpile, the controversy may catch him unawares and rather rudely by the heels. But aside from the dangers involved in side-stepping the issues, the principal must take leadership in providing for the moral and spiritual welfare of boys and girls. The following suggestions may prove helpful:

1. Become thoroughly familiar with existing local, state, and national legislation regarding the teaching of religious values, and learn your own legal rights.²¹

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 80.

¹⁹ For analyses of some of the problems and issues involved, see *Phi Delta Kappan*, 36:241-276 (April), 1955. The entire issue deals with religion in education.

²⁰ From Public School Opinionnaire, developed as part of the Southern States Cooperative Project in Educational Administration.

²¹ See, for example, Fred E. Brooks, "The Legal Status of the Pupil in the American

2. Explore these with your teachers at least to the point where there is considerable assurance that needless blunders will be avoided.

3. Acquaint yourself with local pressure groups and their ways of working.

4. Keep a finger on the pulse of community thought and opinion. Local concern for what the school is or is not doing in regard to the development of moral and spiritual (including religious) values frequently comes and goes in waves. Knowing the nature of the current and whether the tide is going in or out can be most helpful.

5. Once assured that admittance to the school of any person or group is legal and once having given permission for that admittance, be sure that you are prepared to grant comparable privileges to similar groups or individuals.

6. If requirements regarding devotionals are not beyond the control of the local school, be certain that practices followed respect denominational lines, in that no one denomination is in effect discriminated against through tacit approval of any other.

7. Provide a planned program within which provision is made for children to develop morally and spiritually.²²

This last point is, after all, the crux of the whole question of teaching moral and spiritual values. Some people would approach the problem by first identifying and then teaching the common elements of the world's major religions. There are at least two major pitfalls that must be recognized in following this procedure. In the first place, looking only at a common core carries with it the danger of overlooking those differences that have been the real source of aggrandizement, conflict, injustice, and human suffering in the world. Secondly, even such a concept as "Do unto others as you would have others do unto you," to cite one common to many religions, is subject to widely divergent interpretations from culture to culture. If we are to make progress in the realm of moral and spiritual values, we must guide children into and through a series of experiences designed to make them perceptive in regard to basic human values.²³ They must meet and struggle with the situations in which man's regard for his fellow man profoundly affects the final disposition of those situations.

Public Schools: A Study of Common-Law Principles" (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation; Chicago: University of Chicago, 1948); and Research Division, National Education Association, "The State and Sectarian Education," *Research Bulletin*, No. 1, Vol. 24 (February), 1946.

²² For a report on the evaluation of children's social values, see Ruth Larson, "A Study of Children's Values," *Educational Leadership*, 12:231-235 (January), 1955.

²³ For specific suggestions regarding activities in art, music, literature, and so on, through which moral and spiritual experience may be developed, see *Report of the Workshop in Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public School* (Stockton, Calif.: College of the Pacific, 1953).

They must engage critically in the intellectual exploration of why things happened as they happened and how they might have occurred differently. Values are thus tested in life, and behavior has a chance to become moral rather than merely well-mannered.

In the same way that the school guides children in problems involving numbers so that they will understand mathematical truth, the school must guide children in problems involving man and his religion so that they will comprehend moral truth. If education is life, the role of religion in life certainly must be included in the curriculum.

MARKING, RECORDING, AND REPORTING

In seeking to change marking, recording, and promoting practices, one changes little unless the thinking of those who use them is fundamentally changed. School people have labored for months in changing reporting symbols from A, B, C, D, and F to S and U, for example, only to find that they had changed the symbols but not the philosophies of the people using and interpreting them. Many teachers continued to reserve the S for what previously would have been labeled A, B, or C, and the parents simply assumed that S and better-than-average work were synonymous. Principals who would bring about real and lasting progress might begin with an examination of the generalizations that govern sound evaluation, of which marking and reporting are a part. Faculty discussion of the following statements might be a good beginning place.

1. *To seek to evaluate anything is to assume that we know what we seek.* This means that it is meaningless to evaluate pupil progress when we do not know what we wish them to progress toward.
2. *To seek to evaluate is to assume that we will recognize what we seek when we find it.* Therefore, we must define clearly the characteristics that mark the presence of the pupil behavior desired.
3. *We must be sure that what we observe in evaluating is part, at least, of what we want to appraise.* All of us sometimes permit characteristics we particularly like or dislike to affect our observations and thus to make them invalid. Thus, Susie's A for arithmetic is not really for computational skill, but for her pleasant and attractive disposition.
4. *We must be sure that the evidence used has been properly verified.* Appraisal based on "thinks" and "guesses" is not sufficiently objective. Either we must use measuring devices that show us clearly what we have and how much we have of it, or else we must have high agreement among several impartial but less precise observations.
5. *Evaluative processes must respect the personalities of those involved.* If we pull up a plant to see if the roots need water, the resulting death of the plant causes our initial concern to be purely academic. And so with

a child. If our evaluative procedures kill his self-confidence, he is not likely to benefit from whatever insights we get into his growth needs.

6. *Evaluation must lead to an identification of strengths and weaknesses and to subsequent refinement of behavior in the light of findings.* Too often our use of symbols hides the various ingredients that went into determining those symbols. A weakness not identified and corrected may enter into every subsequent inadequacy.

7. *Evaluation is a continuing process.* We do not simply take a look at ourselves today and then forget all about the self-evaluative process until school regulations say another report is due. It is a never-ending process of value determining, activity appraising, and behavior changing.

8. *Evaluation is a cooperative endeavor.* Those affected by the outcome must be involved in determining the criteria, applying the criteria, and assaying the adequacy of the results. Failure of our attempts to improve marking and reporting policies and practices may be attributed largely to our failure to apply this principle.

In the three sections that follow, current practice in marking, recording, and reporting is analyzed. Suggestions for improvement in all three areas are reserved for a fourth section.

Marking or Grading

The symbols in marking or grading pupil growth usually are repeated in reporting pupil growth to parents. Therefore, these symbols will be discussed here as they apply to both marking and reporting. The process of reporting to parents will be discussed later.

The most commonly used systems are percentages, letter grades, S and U or other similar symbols, check lists, and descriptive statements. Percentages, long standard in American education and common to the childhood period of our readers, are being used less and less. They restrict the variety of evaluative procedures that can be used. While it is possible to assign 92 rather than 91 for the number of correct spelling words in 100, it is impossible to make such refined discriminations between two essays on the contribution of penicillin to man's welfare. And efforts to think up evaluations to which percentages may be assigned in the primary grades frequently are ludicrous travesties on educational practice. Percentages suffer, too, from being difficult to interpret. Is 68 in arithmetic the same as 68 in spelling? And is 75 from Miss Adams equivalent to 75 from Miss White? But these shortcomings notwithstanding, many parents grew up on percentages. They think they understand them and, frequently, want them retained. They will not be satisfied with changes that simply are foisted upon them.

Letter grades suffer from most of the inadequacies of percentages and a few peculiar to themselves. Their chief superiority comes from the relative ease of using a five-point rather than a hundred-point scale. Much of their abuse centers in using the statistical normal curve concept when it is inappropriate to do so. This concept by its very name implies that a normal sample of the population will distribute itself in the character of a bell-shaped curve. But relentlessly applied to marking, it means that a carefully selected group of youngsters scoring in the top quartile of all American children in a standardized arithmetic test of necessity would score all the way from A to F if compared only among themselves. The key is normalcy of sample population and in any class of thirty pupils the presence of a normal range on a large number of characteristics is most difficult to determine. Perhaps the most vicious aspect of the A, B, C system is that, when purely academic competence is measured, a very small proportion of the pupils gets a very large proportion of the failing grades. This would not be so bad if this state of affairs represented appropriate reward for diligence, industry, and other significant human traits. But, on the contrary, these low grades usually represent punishment for failure to possess the mental wherewithal necessary for realistic competition with the intellectually favored—a circumstance over which no child has the slightest particle of control.

Descriptive symbols such as S and U are even easier to assign, so far as the discrimination factor is concerned.²⁴ Of course, there are always those borderline cases that bully a conscientious teacher into a state of exasperated inertia. Historically, the S—U system was devised in an attempt to get away from the evils of competitive marking. It never reached the heights of enlightened educational practice for which it was intended and now, while it may be gaining an occasional convert, backsliding is evident on every hand. The causes are not hard to find. Basic is the fact that parents, children, and even teachers too often were not brought into the process of change. Not infrequently the scheme was transplanted from a consultant's or "expert's" mind to school practice with little intervening analysis of its underlying assumptions and their corollaries. Even if parents, children, and teachers were involved and understood the system in its first introduction, it later died on the vine, because the need for continual orientation for new people was not foreseen. Soon, teachers and parents forgot that S simply meant satisfactory work for that particular child at that particular time. Bright children seldom received U, because their work was well above average for the group even if far below what

²⁴ For an analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of this system, see Merle Bramlette, "Is the S and U Grading System Satisfactory or Unsatisfactory?" *Texas Outlook*, 26:29-30 (April), 1942.

might be expected of them. S and U, or any other type of marking symbol, accomplish meaningful purposes only when parents, teachers, and children keep clearly in mind the fact that the base line is individual performance. "S" means satisfactory work for this particular child at this particular time. "U" means that this child is not performing at a level believed adequate for him, regardless of how well his performance compares with that of other children.

Check lists are not a separate type of marking system. Some mark of the types already discussed is used in responding to the items on the check list. The list provides a specific breakdown of those aspects of pupil behavior and performance with which the teacher and the school are concerned. It serves to keep before the teacher the fact that appraisal is concerned with much more than a few phases of academic performance only.

Many thoughtful parents and teachers recognize that a single symbol or check doesn't tell very much about a dynamic young human engaged in the complex processes of education. It doesn't provide the evidence needed in determining the adequacy either of program or pupil progress. Teachers who engage in child study programs calling for anecdotal techniques have learned the usefulness of a simple, factual statement about a child recorded, not at a specified time of the year, but at the time a particular observation appeared pertinent. After years of studying individual children, teachers in the Parker School District of South Carolina, for example, hit upon the idea of beginning a simplified anecdotal record on each child from the time he entered the first grade. Obviously, a tremendously significant body of information about these children was built up as they passed through the grades. With such data at hand, the actual marking and, for that matter, reporting of pupil progress may take any one of several directions. Whatever mechanics may be adopted for marking, recording, and reporting the progress of pupils, it is obvious that a substantial body of evidence with which to work must be collected.

*Recording Pupil Progress*²⁵

School records of pupil progress perform at least two vital functions: (1) They provide the only permanent source of information about the child's school attendance. Possible future uses of such records—the kinds of information that may be sought—must be planned for. (2) Guidance of the pupil while he is in school. Since this is obviously the more important function, every effort must be made to see that record-keeping designed for the first purpose does not get in the way of the second.

²⁵ For a comprehensive treatment of school record-keeping, together with illustrations of many sample forms, see Fred C. Ayer, *Practical Child Accounting* (rev. ed.; Austin, Tex.: Steck Company, 1953).

It is recommended that the recording system of the elementary school make provision for the following:

1. Recording vital statistics of birth, parents, dates of attendance, and so on.

2. Recording pertinent health information—vision tests, dental examinations, physical checkups.

3. Recording academic progress. Obviously, the system used will depend largely upon the marking policies employed. But the permanent marking system should reveal much more than subject grades. Also important are the records of standardized tests described earlier in this chapter. It is important to know and to record the fact that Billy Armstrong's score in arithmetic computation was 0.8, 1.9, and 3.1 years in the second, fourth, and sixth grades, respectively. Information of this kind, together with mental age scores of 6-3, 7-2, and 8-7 recorded at the same times, is most helpful in giving Billy the kind of guidance he needs. Even though his report card may record S from top to bottom, Billy has a right to learn he has limitations and that these limitations are neither sinful nor necessarily permanent. He has a right to know that he can succeed as a person without being a whiz in arithmetic. He has a right to gain insight into what his mathematical limitations mean for choice of a career. If permanent records do not provide the information that facilitates guidance of the Billys and Susies, they do not warrant the untold hours of human labor that go into their maintenance.

4. Recording anecdotal observations. In schools that have moved toward the technique of recording the observed behavior of children in a wide range of circumstances, the adoption of some unified system is most helpful. Otherwise, the usefulness of the material ends with the progress of the child to another grade. A unified system permits each teacher to use the information already recorded and to add to it, thus producing a truly cumulative record.

*Reporting to Parents*²⁶

Systems of reporting to parents fall, generally, into one of three types:

1. Some sort of mimeographed or printed card.²⁷ The card will be marked according to one of the systems described earlier—percentages, letter grades, letter symbols, check lists, or descriptive statements. Items

²⁶ For an analysis of trends, see Ida B. De Pencier, "Trends in Reporting Pupil Progress in the Elementary Grades, 1938-1949," *Elementary School Journal*, 51:519-523 (May), 1951.

²⁷ See especially Ruth Strang, *Reporting to Parents* (rev. ed.; New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952).

covered may include only academic subjects or may cover a very wide range of growth characteristics. The card system is a relatively expedient device, but is hampered by its rigidity.

2. Letters to parents.²⁸ This system may be conducted along rather formal lines, with letters covering a fixed set of topics being sent out at regular intervals. It also may be very informal, with the teacher writing about whatever he wishes whenever it seems appropriate to do so. One danger in this system lies in the nature of comments made. It is so easy to slip into the habit of writing subjective and innocuous statements. "Betty is doing better work," and "Teddy should study more" can mean absolutely nothing or whatever the reader wishes to see. Teachers need help in the preparation of objective statements that present a true picture. The techniques of anecdotal record-keeping are helpful.

3. Parent-teacher and parent-teacher-pupil conferences.²⁹ By this means, all involved have an opportunity to sit down together in a mutual reporting process. Such conferences call for careful teacher preparation. Many teachers have deceived themselves into thinking that the conference system represents an easy way out of time-consuming reporting procedures. On the contrary, it is demanding of skill in human relations and of time and energy. Nevertheless, it permits comprehensive reporting and immediate discussion of vital issues. Again, teachers need to be prepared to make objective appraisals. They must have adequate evidence at hand. Perhaps the greatest difficulty with the conference system is an administrative one. Many schools find it difficult to schedule the conferences at times that are convenient for all concerned.³⁰

Improving Marking, Recording, and Reporting

The preceding pages have been designed primarily to provide a point of view toward evaluation and a critical analysis of some present practices in marking, recording, and reporting. It is essential that the elementary school principal familiarize himself with such background material. But the core of his job is the provision of leadership in seeking to develop the policies and practices best suited to his particular school and community.

²⁸ See Robert W. Richey, "Reporting Pupil Progress to Parents," *Indiana University School of Education Bulletin*, 25:29-34 (January), 1949.

²⁹ For a discussion of techniques, see K. E. D'Evelyn, *Individual Parent-Teacher Conferences* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945).

See also Beatrice Ford Parker, "The Parent-Teacher Conference," *Elementary School Journal*, 53:270-274 (January), 1953; and Virgil E. Herrick and others, *The Parent-Teacher Conference* (mimeographed; Madison, Wis.: Virgil E. Herrick, 1954).

³⁰ For the story of how the Brownell Elementary School, Lorain, Ohio, moved into a parent-teacher conference technique in reporting, see T. K. Muellen, "An Experiment in Reporting Pupil Progress," *Elementary School Journal*, 52:42-44 (September), 1951.

The following suggestions may prove helpful in providing that leadership:

1. Get your own purpose—that of developing policies and practices best suited to your school and community—clearly in mind. Such a purpose does not include in it at any point the intent to coerce others to the viewpoint you hold. Nor does it assume the “best” policy to be that which you personally endorse. The “best” is the product of the careful study and planning of those who are to use and be affected by it. That doesn’t mean that your thinking will not be considered or that recognized specialists in the field will not be consulted. But it does mean that the best only can be that which those affected by it produce, understand, and are willing to use. Such a “best” is the best possible practice under the circumstances, even though it may not reach your own aspirations. Acceptance of this fact will help you to be a more patient and understanding leader.

2. Examine with your faculty the purposes of marking, recording, and reporting.³¹ In the process, some teachers will come to realize for the first time that such devices are intended for the guidance of pupils and the edification of parents, not for the perpetuation of well-instilled educational traditions.

Somewhere in the process, decisions about where and how to involve affected persons must be made. This timing will depend upon a large number of factors (the process has been described earlier in this volume) and there is never the comfort of knowing that decisions made were the best possible.

Leadership is the taking of calculated risks. Nobody can, with certainty, predict the consequences of any particular act in the group. Therefore, the leader makes the ablest diagnosis he can of the group problem, selects the most promising course of action, and then tries it. . . . The principle is that the risk taken by the leader should not be greater than his ability to remedy the situation if the action turns out to be mistaken.³²

3. Appraise the effectiveness of your present systems of marking, recording, and reporting pupil progress. This could be a very extensive review of questions such as the following:

- (a) Is our marking system in accord with our understandings of children and our philosophy of pupil progress?

³¹ For help on this point, see Ruth Strang, “Reporting Pupil Progress,” *School Executive*, 72:47-50 (August), 1953.

³² Herbert A. Thelen, “The Experimental Method in Classroom Leadership,” *Elementary School Journal*, 53:76-77 (October), 1952.

- (b) Does our marking system tell enough of the story of pupil progress to help us give effective guidance?
- (c) Does our system of recording pupil growth give us the information we need from the time children come to us until we send them on into the secondary school?
- (d) Are our parents pleased with the reporting system, and do they understand it? ³³
- (e) What negative home practices regarding pupil growth does our present reporting system encourage?

An analysis such as this will do much to clarify the values and attitudes of all who participate in it. Until such questions have been rather thoroughly worked over, it is not likely that specific proposals will be understood at the level needed for successful policy formation.³⁴

4. Explore current practices and descriptions of recommended policy for suggestions that appear to have value. Unless the various committees engaging in this exploration have already formulated a clear concept of local shortcomings and needs, this process may become largely an academic activity.

5. Formulate the policies that seem best suited to the ends in view. These may be virtually adoptions of practices found to be successful elsewhere. More probably, they will be a unique combination of elements selected because of their appropriateness for the local school and community.

Forward-looking Policies and Practices

For many school leaders, this chapter might well be concluded with the preceding paragraphs. Up to this point, it has been designed simply to help elementary school principals and their faculties take a next step forward from wherever they may be. The authors' viewpoints have inadvertently appeared from time to time, but the intent has been to avoid endorsement of any particular practice—simply because it is impossible to know the appropriate next step for all schools. The remaining pages, by contrast, constitute an endorsement of certain practices which, when coupled with school readiness for them, appear to be forward-looking. Some schools are using various aspects of them and it is the experience of

³³ For some illustrations of cooperative effort in improving reporting practices, see Ida B. De Pencier, "Cooperative Planning and Report Cards," in "Educational News and Editorial Comment," *Elementary School Journal*, 53:254-257 (January), 1953; and Regina H. Westcott, "The Problem of Report Cards," *NEA Journal*, 44:34-36 (January), 1955.

³⁴ For some suggestions in improving reporting, see Dorothy Rogers, "Common-Sense Considerations Concerning Report Cards," *Elementary School Journal*, 52:518-522 (May), 1952.

such schools that makes possible the designation of the term "forward-looking."

1. Anecdotal record-keeping has the dual merit of accumulating the raw data necessary to an adequate pupil personnel policy and simultaneously of developing in the teacher a guidance point of view. It is both impossible and unnecessary to maintain extensive records on each child. But careful, long-term recording by each teacher on a few children develops observational and interpretive skills that find expression in observations extended to all children. In time, teachers are able to shift their attentions from detailed records of a few children to recording pertinent data on many children. The end product is a usable record of individual pupil progress that surpasses any other device in both breadth of coverage and ease of interpretation.

2. An "exhibit" folder containing the results of the child's day-to-day efforts provides an achievement record of unsurpassed face validity. Items filed must be carefully dated, and discrimination must be used in selecting or the folder will become overly bulky. Into the folder along with exhibits go statements of projects completed, books read, units covered, and so on.

3. Standardized tests repeated at selected intervals and interpreted with appropriate professional caution provide a record of pupil growth that surpasses in validity, reliability, and objectivity anything of test nature that the tired teacher is able to produce at the end of a weary day. Their results have an impersonality about them that facilitates pupil guidance. Admittedly, such tests serve only as further evidence to corroborate teacher judgment. It is relatively easy to go over the results in such a way that the total picture of child development is clarified. Such a testing program frequently provides a basis for diagnosis and treatment of individual learning problems. Standardized tests serve little purpose when the results are used merely to compare group scores with theoretical national "norms." The foregoing is not to imply, of course, that teachers' "progress" tests should not be given. The intent here simply is to point out the possible added advantages of standardized tests of various types.

4. Parent-teacher-pupil progress report conferences appear to be the ultimate extension of the principle that evaluation is a cooperative endeavor. They provide for a mutual guidance opportunity that no amount of note sending, letter writing, or telephoning ever can duplicate, let alone excel. Conferences permit immediate interchange of viewpoints relative to those matters that are most timely. They accommodate the inclusion of principal, visiting teacher, family physician, or anyone else who has a pertinent contribution or interest. Backed by anecdotal records, personnel

folders, "exhibit" folders, the results of standardized tests—all described earlier—such conferences provide a reporting of pupil progress that is in accord with the evaluative principles enumerated at the beginning of this section.

Because of the importance and extensiveness of the problems involved, this discussion of improving pupil personnel policies is extended through the succeeding chapter. A summary of basic concepts pertinent to both chapters is deferred to the end of the entire discussion. Readings appropriate for one or the other chapter are listed in their appropriate places.

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDY

1. The Crooked Creek Elementary School has ten teachers, two of whom teach the first grade, and a nonteaching principal, Mr. Clark. In the past, orientation for potential first-graders took place each May. The procedure was somewhat as follows: The time, date, place, and essential details were announced in the local paper. Upon arrival, mothers and their young children were ushered by upper-grade children into the auditorium. Here, the principal talked to the group for thirty minutes about school policies and regulations. Then a short play, song, or recital was put on by each grade. During the performance, parents who wished to do so slipped out to take their children to another room for a medical checkup by the county health physician and a nurse. At the conclusion of the program, parents, children, and the school principal went to the cafeteria for refreshments. Mr. Clark thinks this procedure might be improved upon. What suggestions do you have for him?

2. Harry Bathurst is principal of a large elementary school in a city where the newspapers are giving considerable attention to public education. The question of whether or not the public schools are doing a good job is a common topic of conversation among parents everywhere. One afternoon, a particularly irate businessman came to Mr. Bathurst's office and condemned him and his teachers for failing to teach even rudimentary skill in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Mr. Bathurst replied somewhat as follows: "Perhaps the school isn't doing quite so well as it once did in these matters. But you must remember, sir, that it has a great many other things to do today. Our children are happier in school and get along with one another better than they ever did!" What do you think of this reply? Would you have said the same thing? If not, what would you have said?

3. Evaluate each of the following situations; that is, indicate what you believe to be sound or unsound practice and support your position.

(a) A sixth-grade teacher explained her grading system as follows: "I give A to 5 per cent of the class. Since there are thirty-eight children in the group, I award two A's in each area of work."

- (b) At the first faculty meeting of the year, a school principal addressed his teachers as follows: "I know you were all dissatisfied with the report card we used last year. During the summer, I made a study of many cards currently being used in other places. I prepared a card which I believe will meet our needs and had it printed. We will use this new card during the coming year."
- (c) A school faculty became dissatisfied with its report cards, which provided for nothing more than numerical scores for attainment in school subjects. Subsequently, the teachers developed a new card by means of which development in the following areas was reported using A, B, C, D, F: attainment in school subjects, acceptance by classmates, self-control, honesty, and school behavior.
- (d) Another school faculty developed a dual system of records and reports of student progress. Each teacher kept a confidential file showing results of standardized and teacher-made tests. The former showed comparisons of expected and actual attainments for each child. The latter were expressed in percentiles. This information was used for parent-teacher discussion, pupil guidance, and transcripts. The reports sent home were of an informal nature and were sent out whenever the need for a conference or to report something of special interest was felt.
- (e) In revising its marking system, a school faculty retained its A, B, C, D, E system but changed the basis for assigning letter grades. Grades are now assigned according to the actual amount of progress made by each child during the reporting period.

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

- Association for Childhood Education International, *Reporting on the Growth of Children*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1953.
- Ayer, Fred C., *Practical Child Accounting*. Rev. ed.; Austin, Tex.: Steck Company, 1953.
- Cunningham, Ruth, and Associates, *Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951.
- Educational Policies Commission, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1951.
- Elsbree, Willard S., and Harold J. McNally, *Elementary School Administration and Supervision*. New York: American Book Company, 1951.
- Foshay, Arthur W., and Kenneth D. Wann, *Children's Social Values: An Action Research Study*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954.
- Harris, Fred E., *Three Persistent Educational Problems: Grading, Promoting, and Reporting to Parents*. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, 1953.
- Herrick, Virgil E., and others, *The Parent-Teacher Conference*. Mimeographed; Madison, Wis.: Virgil E. Herrick, 1954.
- Kopp, O. W., *Elementary School Transfer: Problems, Principles, and Recom-*

- mended Procedures*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953.
- Langdon, Grace, and I. W. Stout, *Teacher-Parent Interviews*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954.
- Schwartz, Alfred, S. C. Tiedeman, and D. G. Wallace, *Evaluation of Student Progress*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1955.
- Strang, Ruth, *How to Report Pupil Progress*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1955.
- , *Reporting to Parents*. Rev. ed.; New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952.
- Thurstone, Thelma G., and Katherine M. Byrne, *Mental Abilities of Children*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1952.
- Torgerson, Theodore L., and Georgia S. Adams, *Measurement and Evaluation for the Elementary-School Teacher*. New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1954.
- Wrinkle, William L., *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices*. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1947.

8~

Leadership in Developing Pupil Personnel Policies (continued)

BOTH A PHILOSOPHY and a definition of pupil personnel policies are developed in this and the preceding chapter. Philosophy and definition emerge by implication rather than through description. It becomes clear that pupil personnel policies, as discussed in these two chapters, are those school policies having direct bearing upon children, their learning, instruction, and total growth under the auspices of the elementary school. The underlying philosophy throughout is that total growth is best fostered when these policies stress the uniqueness of personality as it is expressed for and within group welfare. These points of view are emphasized in discussing the classification of pupils for instruction, regulating pupil progress, special guidance problems, and articulation with the secondary school.

CLASSIFYING PUPILS FOR INSTRUCTION

Three problems in classifying pupils for instruction were identified early in the preceding chapter: (1) How should the total school population be divided among the teachers available? (2) How should children who deviate markedly from others be grouped for instruction within each classroom? (3) How should children be grouped for instruction within each classroom?

The first of these questions was dealt with in Chapter 7. Only a special aspect of it pertaining closely to pupil guidance is developed here. The other two are discussed more fully, with special reference to the principles set forth toward the end of Chapter 6. These principles have special significance for most of the topics covered in this chapter and should be reviewed at this time.

Allotting Pupils to Groups

When a pattern of organization for the elementary school has been determined, the problem of assigning pupils to teachers and groups within the structure still remains. Teachers do not work with equal effectiveness with all children in a class. It is conceivable that children should be moved occasionally to other groups that appear more appropriate for their particular needs. On the other hand, such flexibility should not be used as an "escape" for every teacher who finds difficulty in working with certain children.

Appropriate considerations for assigning pupils to teachers and groups include the following:

1. Will classification of this pupil for instruction place him with those children with whom he normally would associate? Sandin found that slow-progress pupils tended to select their companions from higher grades where these children would have been had they progressed normally.¹ Generally speaking, it seems undesirable for a child to be more than one year over or under the median age of the group with which he is placed.

2. Does placement of this particular child with this particular group and teacher seem in line with our knowledge of all the parties involved? Not every teacher succeeds with every child. It is a mature person who can recognize incompatibility and who, with the child's welfare in view, can recommend that the child be placed with someone else. Placement of teacher and child so that each may have optimum success is the soundest system of classification.

3. Does the grading system permit easy transfer of pupils from group to group? Classification of pupils should never be fixed and arbitrary. Children should be moved whenever it seems advantageous to do so. Teachers who have seen fit to retain pupils for an additional year in the same grade frequently find that these same youngsters seem out of place six months later. They should not hesitate to move these children to groups that appear to be more appropriate.

Classifying Children Who Deviate Markedly

The question of whether or not to separate into special classes or schools those youngsters who deviate markedly in physical or mental development has been debated.² Research evidence is inconclusive. Practices

¹ Adolph A. Sandin, *Social and Emotional Adjustments of Regularly Promoted and Non-promoted Pupils* (Child Development Monographs No. 32; New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944), p. 66.

² See, for example, Max S. Marshall, "The Case of the 'Gifted Child,'" *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 40:155-162 (March), 1954; the reply by Frank T. Wil-

followed usually are supported only by philosophical considerations. And, of course, the human appeal aspects of dealing with handicapped children being what they are, emotion too often outweighs reason in the making of important decisions.

Many teachers, overwhelmed by large classes, are ready to endorse special classes for handicapped children simply as a ready means of relieving overcrowding. If they will examine the facts, they will find that such provisions do not provide the hoped-for relief. Usually, they have in mind as prospects for special classes three or four youngsters at each end of the ability scale. One of the authors, teaching in a special school for delinquent boys—children who deviated markedly in emotional adjustment and who revealed a mean test I.Q. of 85—found himself wishing for a “special” special school for those few boys who deviated rather markedly from the mean of even this segregated group! Deviation is a matter of degree. In a special class ranging in I.Q. from 135 to 180, those youngsters scoring in the neighborhood of 135 might well be classified as slow-learners. Our standards of normality tend to shift with the group with which we work.

Interpreting liberally the standards for separation proposed by advocates of special classes, the candidates for such classes in all areas of deviation would number only three or four from each regular classroom group. Obviously, then, classroom teachers are relieved from neither crowded conditions nor the need to deal with a wide range of abilities when various types of special classes are introduced. The need to provide for individual differences remains always in teaching.

In most elementary schools of our nation, the question of whether or not to segregate the gifted, the slow-learning, the physically handicapped, and so on, is largely an academic one. There simply are too few children to permit “special” provisions of any kind. But large cities such as New York, Chicago, Detroit, Seattle, Los Angeles, New Orleans, Atlanta, and many others at one time or another have endorsed special schools and classes, assignment of specialists to groups of schools, support of privately maintained clinics, and similar provisions. Classes for the gifted are reserved usually for children of I.Q. 125 (Stanford-Binet) or higher, but the cutting point sometimes is dropped to 120.³

Some states classify as uneducable those pupils with I.Q. under 50, and many educators recommend special classes for children of I.Q. less than

son, “Comment on the Case of the ‘Gifted Child,’” *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 41:109-112 (February), 1955; and the rebuttal, “In Reply to Dr. Wilson,” pp. 113-114.

³ See Paul Witty, “How to Identify the Gifted,” *Childhood Education*, 29:312-316 (March), 1953.

75. Sight-saving classes are commonly conducted for children who are blind or whose vision is such that learning through normal visual communication is not possible. Common, too, are special schools—frequently privately supported—for children suffering from cerebral palsy, various structural maladies, and deficiencies in speech and hearing. It must be pointed out that in cases of curable physical deficiencies, children are removed from normal classes only until such time as favorable response to treatment permits their return. And in all carefully thought through plans of separation, every possible provision is made for the maintenance of communication with so-called normal classes.

In nearly all instances where special classification provisions for the handicapped and gifted appear to be operating satisfactorily, certain common elements may be noted:

1. The special provisions constitute not merely separation from other children. They have direct bearing upon the particular deviation to be cared for. In cases of defective speech or hearing, for example, provisions include instruction by therapists, instructional materials not usually found in the normal classroom, and special clinical and diagnostic facilities and personnel. The special provision, then, is not segregation; it is care of a sort not possible under normal classroom conditions.

2. Classes are very small—frequently not more than six or eight pupils in each group—and a large percentage of the instruction is strictly individual in nature.

3. Concepts of normal grade “minimum learning essentials” are abandoned. Progress is an individual matter and, if usual grade classifications are applied at all, each child will be found to be working at several grade levels, depending upon how far he has advanced in each instructional field.

4. Instruction begins with the concrete and with the daily life experiences of the children. Instruction in a class for the hard-of-hearing, for example, emphasizes Comenius’ old concept of “things before ideas and ideas before words.”

School faculties will want to work through their own decisions regarding provisions for children who deviate—decisions made in such manner are the only valid ones. The authors present the following points of view as a basis for beginning faculty discussion:

1. The authors seriously question the advisability of assigning to special classes those children considered to be gifted or slow-learning. The only exception is those children suffering from amentia to such degree they are considered uneducable. State laws frequently exclude this very small group from public school care. Usually, they present as great a

problem physically as they do mentally. It is proposed, instead, that money and efforts be directed first to the reduction of class size to augment opportunities for individualized instruction. It is further recommended that faculty study be devoted to finding ways and means for reducing the rigidity of grade standards, organizing the program of instruction around persistent life problems, providing instructional materials suited to the range of abilities represented, and evaluating pupil progress on the basis of individual growth and ability. Segregation on the basis of mental deviation is a highly questionable palliative that fails to relieve and sometimes merely obscures the need to deal with a wide range of deviation in all aspects of child growth and development.

2. It is recommended that screening procedures be devised for the identification of physical abnormalities that deprive many children of the opportunity to participate normally in the learning activities of the elementary school. Professional services frequently are available under the auspices of the public health agency or various private groups. Survey your community to see what help may be available. Frequently such services may be obtained through a larger center elsewhere in the state.

3. When screening has been completed, consider first what special provisions can be made without removing children from normal classes.⁴ Frequently, a specially trained person can be hired to serve several schools, the children needing special instruction being removed from regular classes only for brief periods several times each week.

4. When removal of seriously handicapped children seems advisable—and such will be the case only rarely—consider the kinds of communication that can be maintained until such time as the child is returned to regular school.

5. When special clinical facilities are needed, consider seriously the possibility of cooperating with private facilities already established or of joining other school systems in the development of what is needed. Special clinical facilities for cerebral palsy, speech and hearing deficiency, and so forth, are extremely expensive to establish and maintain. Well-meaning but shortsighted proposals to sponsor piecemeal facilities should be discouraged. Long-range plans that look toward the ultimate establishment of clinics which include diagnostic and therapeutic facilities in a number of related areas are to be encouraged.

Grouping within the Individual Classroom

The matter of grouping children for instruction within each classroom is a matter of greater concern to each individual teacher than to an entire

⁴ A great deal can be done by the classroom teacher. See, for example, National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, Inc., *Helping the Partially Seeing Child in the Regular Classroom* (Publication 156; New York 19; The Society, 1953).

faculty. This problem is commonly presented for discussion in faculty meetings, study groups, and in-service teacher education classes. The following points may help clarify group discussion and individual thinking:

1. There is nothing sacred about having groups. Groups simply are an expedient device for approximating individualized instruction. The need for them diminishes with decrease in class size.
2. There is nothing magic about groups. They simply set the stage for individualized instruction; they do not provide instruction by themselves. Individual differences still exist within groups and must be provided for.
3. Classroom groups must be reformulated in line with the activity to be carried on. There was a time in our elementary schools when groups were constituted and maintained for all purposes on the basis of reading ability alone. Groups were then labeled—Canaries, Bluebirds, and Crows, for example—and the Crows knew exactly why they were so labeled. But recognition of the real purposes for grouping tells us that groups must be reconstituted for reading, arithmetic, physical education, and so on.
4. Movement from group to group should be facilitated. Children should be transferred to a new group whenever circumstances suggest that another group would be more appropriate.
5. The work of any given group should include individual as well as group activities. A reading program, for example, is inadequate when special attention to the development of reading skill is provided only through a group reading session. There must be opportunity to follow up individual interests at the library corner and special problems in teacher-pupil conferences.
6. For many activities, groups should be selected without reference to special abilities. Careful observation and occasional sociometric checks will provide helpful information in determining whether or not natural friendship ties are being sufficiently recognized and broadened through total class interaction.
7. In seeking to develop an instructional program around the real life problems of their pupils, many teachers are finding less and less need for conventional grouping procedures that seek to group children of like ability in particular skills. They find that children tend to cluster around a particular project on the basis of interest in it rather than likeness in abilities. Differences in abilities are then provided for through selection of a wide range of instructional materials, selection of individual activities that contribute to the total project, children assisting one another, and teacher-pupil conferences. Teachers who see possibilities for such

teaching and learning should be encouraged to begin with one aspect of the curriculum and move gradually to others. Skill in directing such learning is itself learned and improves with practice.

Faculty discussion of grouping procedures should be directed toward the development of mutual understanding rather than uniformity. The intent is to develop a continuous program of instruction that permits easy transition from teacher to teacher. It is important for each teacher to know what his group has been doing in the preceding year and will be doing in the next. Sharing freely in faculty discussion aids immeasurably in developing such understanding.

PUPIL PROGRESS THROUGH THE GRADES

Thad Burrows, principal of Central School, knew that the question of promotion of pupils carried with it some rather troublesome undertones in his faculty. He was anxious to explore the issues thoroughly; yet he wanted to avoid clashes that might endanger the morale of the entire group. He knew, too, that several teachers already had some strong and rather inflexible viewpoints regarding the problem, and he wished to avoid having them take early stands which would not be readily relinquished even in the face of evidence. Selection of a committee to present a plan seemed inadvisable. Teachers with emotion-tinged viewpoints would not likely go along with a plan running counter to their positions. The desirable approach, it seemed to Thad, was to select a means that would encourage analysis of varying points of view in an impersonal manner. Bringing in a consultant appeared to be one way of providing for these conditions.

With this thinking behind him, Thad came to the faculty meeting called for the purpose of discussing promotion problems. He was prepared to take every precaution to prevent disintegration of the group. First, he said that concern was so general that assignment of it to a committee seemed inappropriate, at least for the time being. There was complete agreement from the group. He then faced one issue openly and squarely by saying that what one teacher did about nonpromotion affected other teachers. Consequently, some common understandings should be reached. These could be arrived at, he believed, only by a thorough analysis of the complete problem, not merely by swapping points of view already held by members of the group. He thought that Mr. Wainscott, curriculum director in a neighboring city, would be most helpful in such an analysis. Thad Burrows suggested Mr. Wainscott only after having carefully considered several names. The considerations that finally determined his selection were these:

1. Wainscott was known and personally respected by the entire faculty.
2. Wainscott always familiarized himself thoroughly with the local conditions and progress to date before coming in as a consultant.
3. He had a reputation for turning down requests for assistance when he felt poorly qualified to assist in the particular area under consideration.
4. He didn't start from the beginning. He complimented groups by recognizing what they already had done and by beginning where they were.
5. Wainscott's own study and experience fitted him particularly well for helping with promotion questions.
6. He had no special "axes to grind" and encouraged groups to arrive at their own decisions on the basis of thinking he helped to clarify and evidence he helped to uncover.
7. He did not become defensive or hostile when teachers presented viewpoints differing from his own or actually vented verbal aggression upon him.

The group members readily agreed to having Mr. Wainscott join them and spent the remainder of the meeting in planning for the next session to be held several weeks hence.

Wainscott did not waste time in lecturing to the group or in gathering additional information. Advance planning had served to reveal where the group was and what help was wanted. He began by suggesting that all possible reasons for *retaining* a child in the same grade for another year be brought forward. As teachers offered possible reasons (without having to say whether they were their own or whether they agreed with them), they were written on the board. The resulting list appears below. There is no attempt at this point to accept or refute the points brought forward.

1. Children will learn more of the fundamentals by repeating the year and thus will be better prepared for the next grade.
2. Unless slow-learners are retained, promotion will tend to become the accepted thing with resulting ill-effects upon motivation, work habits, attitudes, and learning itself.
3. Boys and girls are conscious of one another's achievements, and bright pupils come to resent equal rewards for performance that obviously is inferior.
4. Promoting slow-learners is undemocratic, since it will be necessary for teachers of these promoted slow-learners to spend a disproportionate amount of time with them the following year in bringing them up to grade standards.

5. Dealing with individual differences in large classes is difficult enough as it is; promoting those who aren't ready for the next grade just complicates the picture.

6. The child is going to have to face failure some time. He might as well learn to face it while he is in the protected environment of the school.

7. You have to draw the line some place. If you keep pushing along some of these children year after year, they finally graduate from high school, and you turn out people who supposedly have a high school education who really haven't gone beyond the eighth or ninth grade.

8. High school expects a certain amount of preparation. We're liable for a lot of criticism if we send up children who can't spell or read or even count properly.

9. It's not fair to expect children to do what they aren't ready to do, and that's what occurs when we promote slow-learners. They become frustrated in the higher grade and develop undesirable inferiority feelings.

At this point in the meeting it was becoming obvious that some members of the group were somewhat exasperated. Finally, Bob couldn't stand it any longer. "But these are the very same arguments I would use for promoting slow-learners," he finally put in.⁵ "I don't believe they learn any more by repeating a grade, and I think they're just as well prepared for high school without having been retained two or three years. A failure experience isn't good motivation for learning, and it's much more frustrating and conducive to poor adjustment than promotion."

"And if there's the kind of wholesome climate we should have in the classroom, children will tend to be helpful, not critical, in the face of one another's shortcomings," Jean chimed in.

"Is it our business to prepare children for high school?" Sheila asked. "Why, elementary schools were started without any relation to any other kind of school. They were designed to help children learn some things that would aid them in living a better life. And this business of cheating society by turning out poorly prepared people is a lot of poppycock. We really cheat society when we make school such a disagreeable place of continuous failure that boys and girls quit before they're ready to earn a decent living or contribute something to society or build a happy home life."

"This discussion has demonstrated a troublesome reality that exists in regard to much school practice," said Mr. Wainscott. "We can justify quite different—in fact, frequently diametrically opposed—procedures in

⁵ For a more comprehensive analysis of pros and cons in the promotion question, see John I. Goodlad, "To Promote or Not to Promote?" *Childhood Education*, 30:212-215 (January), 1954.

the light of the same philosophy or point of view. That's why school faculties frequently can agree on a very fine-sounding philosophy and then disagree violently on procedures that should reflect that philosophy."

"Yes, and sometimes our purposes say one thing and we do quite another," Thad contributed.

"That's why I think a philosophical discussion of the vices and virtues of nonpromotion might not be too helpful at this point. You will notice that the people who proposed possible reasons for nonpromotion didn't say that they necessarily believed them themselves. They simply were putting forth reasons that might be used by people who support a certain amount of nonpromotion. But there must be people who hold such points of view or how else would we explain the fact that next June, to make a conservative estimate, about a million elementary school children will be retained in their present grades? To cite an unusual instance, I was in a school last year where twenty-six out of fifty-eight first-grade children had been retained the previous year.

"Someone pointed out that the same arguments presented as possible reasons for retaining a child might be used to justify promoting him. I think enough points were made to indicate the truth of this, but sometime you may want to run through the list to see how each argument would sound if applied to promotion rather than to nonpromotion. Obviously, the same argument cannot be equally valid for two such opposing school practices. I see that our time is about up. I have brought along an annotated summary of the research and an additional bibliography. I suggest that you go over the material, see what the research tells us, and conclude for yourselves which of the two alternatives is more valid."

And that's just what this faculty did. They found that research findings show that

1. Children do not learn more by repeating a grade.⁶ In fact, so far as achievement is concerned, potential repeaters (slow-learners) actually seem to profit more from promotion than children of like ability who are retained.

2. Nonpromotion does not encourage homogeneity and decrease the range of abilities with which a teacher must work.⁷

⁶ Conclusions reached after an extensive survey of the research by Carleton M. Saunders, *Promotion or Failure for the Elementary Pupil?* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941), p. 29. See also, William H. Coffield, "A Longitudinal Study of the Effects of Nonpromotion on Educational Achievement in the Elementary School" (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation; Iowa City: State University of Iowa, 1954).

⁷ Hollis L. Caswell, *Non-promotion in Elementary Schools* (Field Studies No. 4; Nashville, Tenn.: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1933), pp. 44-46.

3. Reproof is less valuable than praise as an incentive for school work and that nonpromoted—more than regular progress—pupils show a distaste for school and what it represents to them.⁸

4. There is a higher incidence of troublesome behavior (requiring disciplinary action) among nonpromoted than among regular progress pupils.⁹

5. Nonpromoted children, significantly more than regularly promoted children, have difficulty in making satisfactory social adjustments and are personally disturbed over their felt inadequacy in the realm of peer group relations.¹⁰

In their analysis of the research, various members of the faculty uncovered some interesting facts which, although not contradictory to the general conclusions that stood out so clearly, did not support them. They found that some slow-learning children thrived in spite of retention in a given grade and that some fared badly even after promotion—findings that were verified by their own experience. They concluded that this really was not surprising, however, because promotion is not a panacea that suddenly rights all educational ills and cures all human ailments. From this point, their discussions moved forward until some rather basic agreements were reached on matters of policy.

1. All agreed that promotion was a generally desirable thing. They left open the possibility, however, that it might be in the best interests of given children, occasionally, to keep them with the same teacher. This immediately raised the possibility of a teacher moving along with an entire group. It was decided that this was something worth examining as an alternative to present practice but, within the present grade structure, the policy would be, "When in doubt, promote." When strong arguments pointed to retention (nobody was able to state clearly what these might be), they should be certain that a wide range of factors in addition to academic attainments was examined and that the possibility of a mid-year promotion would be kept open. The criterion always should be, it was said, "what is best for this particular child," not "where he stands in relation to others or to the grade."

2. They agreed, too, that what happens after a child is promoted or retained is at least as important as the promotion act itself. Thus, a promo-

⁸ Sandin, *op. cit.*, p. 123.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 97.

¹⁰ John I. Goodlad, "Some Effects of Promotion and Nonpromotion upon the Social and Personal Adjustment of Children," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 22:301-328 (June), 1954.

For a bibliography and analysis of research related to the conclusions cited above, see John I. Goodlad, "Research and Theory Regarding Promotion and Nonpromotion," *Elementary School Journal*, 53:150-155 (November), 1952.

tion policy never can be used as a screen to hide the ever-present need to deal with a wide range of differences. It was decided that a meeting would be devoted to sharing ideas about classroom procedures appropriate to the needs of slow-learners.

3. It was decided that considerable future attention would be given to studying the possible alternative procedures such as primary divisions embracing grades one through three in one unit,¹¹ teachers moving with one group for two or more years, continuous progress plans with grades being used merely as classifications rather than as hurdles, and so on.

A passage of many months' time is represented by the faculty planning described on previous pages. Faculty study of this and other problems is still going on. Each step seems to open new doors to new educational possibilities. The space devoted here to this rather detailed discussion of how one faculty proceeded is justified on several grounds. In the first place, promotion is another of teachers' "problem demons." To promote or not to promote is the June bugbear of nearly a million teachers and a threat to the social and personal well-being of millions of school children. In addition, since the publication of Ayres' comprehensive analysis of the problem in 1909,¹² there have been dozens of scientific studies pointing up the ill-effects of excessive nonpromotion rates.

That such studies are still going on is evidence that not all of us are yet ready to listen to what these results tell us. Rates of nonpromotion have decreased steadily, it is true. But the fact that even the word is still with us is clearly indicative of the sorry lag between our practices and the findings of research. And this brings us to the most important reason for presenting some of the actual procedures used by Thad Burrows and his faculty in studying this problem. Research findings exist only as so much shocking evidence until someone uses them in an action process deliberately designed to improve school practice. That "someone," among others, is the elementary school principal. Perhaps the foregoing will inspire him, wherever he may be, to exercise the leadership his position demands in developing the best elementary school that on-the-job human ingenuity is able to produce. As a result of this leadership—and more because of it than any other single factor—we may look to a day, some decades hence, when "nonpromotion" has disappeared from our vocabulary, and all the children of all the people are able to progress normally and naturally in educational programs uncluttered by the residue of outmoded thought and irrelevant practice.

¹¹ For further elaboration, see John I. Goodlad, "Ungrading the Elementary Grades," *NEA Journal*, 44:170-171 (March), 1955.

¹² Leonard P. Ayres, *Laggards in Our Schools* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1909).

THE TRANSITION INTO JUNIOR OR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The elementary school is part of a continuous common school program of education that embraces, on the average, twelve years of a young person's life. Creation of elementary and secondary units at different times and with different functions contributed to a division that has been undesirable but very real. The junior high school was created, in part, to bridge the gap, frequently with desirable results. But often, two separation points were substituted for one that had existed previously. School organization is important in determining smooth transition from unit to unit, but more significant are certain human factors that must be present if the transition from the elementary school into the next unit is to be an easy one. One of these factors is the child's readiness for high school; another is the provision for articulation between units.

Pupil Readiness for the Secondary School

A pupil is ready for the secondary school when he has profited all he can from the elementary school and when his profit from the secondary school is potentially greater. If we fully accept the assumption that the common school, elementary and secondary, is a continuous unit, divided into two sections for administrative purposes, then the question of readiness for high school becomes purely academic. Movement from the last grade of the elementary unit to the first grade of the secondary is subject to the identical considerations that apply to movement from grade to grade within either unit. These considerations have been covered in the preceding section on promotion policies. Elementary school principals and teachers have long been bullied by some secondary school personnel into considering matters that are entirely inappropriate to the question of whether a child should be admitted to high school. The secondary school has no sacred immunity from the problems of individual differences that beset the elementary school. It must be prepared to accept with equal status all the children sent to it from the elementary unit, just as the latter must accept as equals all the children of appropriate age sent to it from the home. The basic question to be answered always in determining readiness for high school is simply, "What is best for this child?" not "What does the high school expect of him?"

Improvement of Articulation Procedures

That the secondary school ever should bully the elementary school or that the latter ever should defy the former is indicative of a misunderstanding that never should exist between units of a common enterprise.

The solution to such misunderstanding is joint attack upon a common problem. Here are some steps that might be agreed upon and taken to mutual advantage:

1. Faculty discussion of the problems of transition from unit to unit; for example:

- (a) If the community contains a single small high school and a single elementary school, total membership of the two faculties may be brought together.
- (b) When the schools are large, representation may be selected from each faculty.
- (c) When there are several "feeder" elementary schools, over-all policies should be agreed upon through a group representing all units.
- (d) General policies should be supplemented by agreement negotiated by each elementary school with the secondary school.

2. Intervisitation to enable teachers in one unit to become acquainted with the goals, activities, and problems of the other. A mathematics teacher, for example, might come to understand his own teaching problems better through increased insight into problems of teaching arithmetic in the lower grades.

3. Discussions for pupils in the upper grades of the elementary school led by high school students and teachers and participated in by elementary school teachers. Teachers and pupils at both levels should do the planning for such affairs.

4. Carefully planned visitation by sixth-, seventh-, or eighth-grade children to the secondary school.

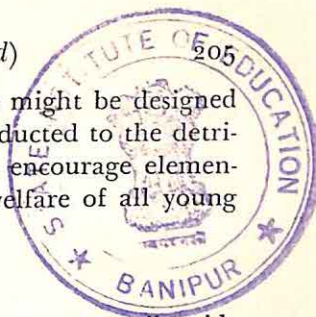
5. Occasional social "mixers" planned and participated in jointly by older elementary school groups and by pupils in the lower high school grades.

6. Discussion sessions for parents of high-school-bound youngsters.

7. Transfer of appropriate records from elementary to secondary school. All but census-type records are maintained largely for guidance purposes. They should be accessible to those currently responsible for the guiding. High schools should not begin their record-keeping anew. They should build on records obtained from feeder schools.

8. Joint follow-up of graduates of elementary schools. These must not be conducted for purposes of pupil and school comparison. They should be designed to provide the information needed by both elementary and secondary schools in guiding pupils toward wholesome personal adjustment.

9. Evaluation procedures for secondary schools that respect the interests



of elementary schools. On one hand, such procedures might be designed to deprive of accreditation any high school being conducted to the detriment of feeder schools. More positively, they should encourage elementary and secondary units to work for the common welfare of all young people in the community.

SOME SPECIAL GUIDANCE PROBLEMS

Neither detailed development of a program of individual pupil guidance nor analysis of the counselling process falls within the scope of this book. Comprehensive volumes on these subjects are available.¹³ But suggestions for a framework within which guidance and counselling can be conducted effectively, for developing a guidance viewpoint in the elementary school, and for initiating the process through which both framework and appropriate understandings may be developed are of concern here. Many of the conditions necessary for the kind of pupil guidance conducive to wholesome growth and development already have been discussed in this and the preceding chapter. They are grouped here to comprise a summary of what has gone before:

1. A school atmosphere in which principal, teachers, pupils, and others feel free to be themselves.
2. Continual, on-going faculty planning and study within which any problem is "fair game" and everyone feels completely free to say what he really thinks.
3. Orientation procedures for all children, emphasizing the values of individual human personality.
4. Orientation and follow-up activities that help the child to identify himself with his school environment and to relate himself with it rather than to place himself in opposition to it.
5. School procedures that recognize the interrelatedness of growth factors and make provision for the fact that optimum development in any one area is dependent upon optimum development in all others.
6. A system of marking and recording that facilitates both pupil self-evaluation and individual pupil guidance.
7. Participation of pupils, parents, and teachers in the development of a reporting system that reports on what all believe to be important in ways that encourage pupil growth.

¹³ See, for example, Clifford R. Froehlich, *Guidance Services in Small Schools* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950); Arthur J. Jones, *Principles of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Work* (4th ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951); Glenn E. Smith, *Principles and Practices of the Guidance Program* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950); and Roy DeVerl Willey, *Guidance in Elementary Education* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952).

8. A system of pupil classification that facilitates equivalent, but not necessarily identical, instructional opportunities for all.

9. Classification provisions that recognize the elementary school's obligation to encourage participation in the common school program for all children, whatever their handicaps may be.

10. Classroom grouping for instruction on the basis of pupil welfare and the nature of the task to be performed.

11. Decisions regarding pupil progress based on what appears to be the best possible prognosis for the child in question.

12. Readiness for high school determined on the basis of optimum pupil growth rather than absolute criteria established by the receiving institution.

13. Joint planning by principals, teachers, pupils, and parents representing both elementary and secondary schools in determining policies to effect smooth transition from elementary to secondary school.

14. Careful experimentation with new practices that reflect both recent research and careful study of child needs and school function, even though experimental practices devised may run counter to long-established traditional procedures.

Reducing Disciplinary Problems

Among all problems in guidance, that of discipline rates high among teacher concerns. Pupil personnel policies and practices, such as those summarized briefly above, are designed to facilitate optimum pupil growth and minimize the strain and tension that produce discipline problems. The elementary school principal is advised to take leadership in promoting cooperative ventures such as the following:

1. Surveying the school plant for physical conditions that produce tension and conflict. These might include, for example:
 - (a) Lockers packed closely together in narrow hallways in such way that using them blocks traffic and causes pushing and fighting.
 - (b) Desks screwed to the floors in such way that they frustrate the efforts of teachers and pupils alike in carrying on the daily business of living and learning together.
 - (c) Picnic tables and benches rather than chairs and tables for groups of from three to six in the cafeteria.
 - (d) Unhygienic lavatory facilities conducive to writing on the walls, climbing over receptacles, and so on.
2. Surveying the school grounds for conditions conducive to pupil dissatisfaction such as:

- (a) Crowded playground conditions, perhaps due to improper planning for their use.
 - (b) Too few bicycle racks, resulting in squabbles over rights of possession.
 - (c) Unprotected windows adjacent to play areas.
 - (d) Impractical placement of shrubs and flowers and poor choice of landscape areas.
3. Surveying daily practices and school regulations not conducive to pupil well-being:
- (a) Mass feeding conditions in the lunchroom conducive to noise, unhygienic eating habits, careless disposal of waste, and so on.
 - (b) Inadequate supervision of hallways and play areas.
 - (c) Failure to protect pupils and teachers from unnecessary interruptions in their daily classroom affairs.
 - (d) Poorly planned use of special instructional facilities.
4. Making use of a wide variety of techniques for appraising the climate of pupil well-being:
- (a) Questionnaires and opinionnaires to seek out pupil viewpoints on specific school matters.
 - (b) Close contact with topics covered in meetings of the student council and other special groups.
 - (c) Occasional free discussion and round-table sessions on topics of school improvement.
5. Including pupil representation in school planning and policy making wherever possible. Some appropriate alternative techniques include the following:
- (a) Election of a pupil representative from each room to constitute an advisory group to the principal on problems of general pupil concern.
 - (b) Election of grade representatives to serve with a group of teachers on certain matters of school policy.
 - (c) Election of a student council to study selected areas of school problems with which pupils are especially well fitted to deal.
6. Taking a careful inventory of the incidence of tardiness and absence with a view to getting at cause. Teachers and administrators who look first to finding appropriate means of punishment for what appears to be chronic inexcusable absence or tardiness will pause when they find contributing conditions such as the following:

- (a) Insistence by parents that children stay home on certain days to do chores or to care for siblings.
 - (b) Failure of parents to rise early enough to feed and otherwise prepare children for school.
 - (c) Extended absence from school to accompany parents on business and vacation trips.
 - (d) Failure of parents to take adequate health precautions or to provide proper medical and dental services for their children.
 - (e) Impoverished family conditions that make it impossible for parents to clothe their children properly for school.
 - (f) Tensions arising from parental pressures, school difficulties, or peer group quarrels that force a child into habits of truancy.
7. Identifying and using various agencies which are designed especially for helping the school solve the many problems of pupil personnel that must be dealt with if children are to profit from the educational program available to them in the elementary school. Some of these agencies and services are discussed later in this chapter.

Even when pupil personnel policies are encouraging to pupil growth and even when various conditions in the home and school likely to be detrimental to this growth have been remedied, problems requiring special guidance still will arise. It is impossible to predict here what these problems may be or to suggest the most appropriate remedies. A few general suggestions are offered, nevertheless, to complete the framework within which effective pupil guidance may operate.

1. The elementary school principal is a designated status leader in one of democracy's primary institutions. As such, it is his responsibility to create the permissive framework within which teachers and pupils may identify and develop their potentialities. As such, however, he is not school disciplinarian, chief guidance official, or benevolent despot empowered to mete out punishment or lavish praise according to personal whim and fancy. The principal who assumes these roles in effect destroys in large measure his opportunity to become the kind of leader described throughout these pages. For teachers and pupils to ask him to assume them is to ask him to forego the real challenge of democratic leadership. It follows, then, that teachers must do everything in their power to keep their principal from being identified with an authoritarian role. Specifically, they must not threaten children with the principal's shadow of wrath, avoid their classroom responsibilities by sending all troublesome children to "the office," or insist that the principal mete out the punishment which they themselves are reluctant to administer. The principal should be ap-

proached as a friend, as a sympathetic and understanding listener who will examine the evidence and offer suggestions, and as a source of strength and support in time of stress. His own behavior must justify this respect and friendship and be supported, in turn, by the behavior of teachers and pupils.

2. The negative outcomes of group punishment for individual misdemeanors far outweigh whatever positive outcomes may be identifiable. Disciplinary measures of this kind run counter to rather than support what we know about peer group forces. In many instances, the teacher not only endangers the well-being of the offending child but also encourages group resistance to school, program, and teacher. Group forces represent tremendous potential for effective teaching and learning. When we fail to recognize them, we fail to make use of our teaching resources.

3. Human beings in our society generally desire to be constructive forces. Usually, too, their constructive ends are short-term. This is especially true with children. They want to be accepted group members. Constructive endeavors, then, are those that contribute to group welfare. But if the group itself has destructive ends, individual children are caught in a dilemma they themselves may not even see. It follows that the best corrective measures frequently are those which seek to change group goals rather than to single out individuals for punishment or guidance. This approach has been demonstrated many times by social workers who, instead of beginning with rehabilitation of individual offenders, direct their energies first towards the redirection of goals within delinquent gangs. Again, what we know about the material with which we work helps to suggest the methods we use.

4. Most children live within several worlds of inconsistent, frequently conflicting values. These worlds include home, church, school, and gang or group. The child somehow must resolve these differences within his own world of self. Misdemeanors in school, then, may result from a failure to drop quickly enough the home role in favor of that of the school. Principals and teachers must see into these conflicts if they are to understand and deal appropriately with problems of pupil behavior.

5. Children in the elementary school respond willingly to the opportunity to define the limits of acceptable school behavior. They have a tendency, however, to set forth complex sets of rules, many of them quite picayune. When rules are made they will be broken, and when they are broken, punishment usually is expected. Long lists of rules, then, tend to set up a cycle of negativism. School personnel are advised to work with pupils in attitude development, in establishing a set of operational principles that direct rather than dictate desired behavior. Pride in school appearance, respect for individual liberties, and an attitude of helpfulness

toward newcomers are much to be preferred over tales such as, "I saw Jimmy pulling up the tulips" and "Ted went down the stairs four at a time."

6. Discipline and control are positive forces. A chaotic classroom is a negative environment that fosters poor mental hygiene.¹⁴ A rigid classroom is a negative environment that fosters rebellion or introversion and that impedes the development of wholesome independence. Wanted are schools and classrooms that encourage self-discipline in an atmosphere of group self-direction and control.

7. Not all teachers and principals can reach and help all children. Sometimes the answer is reassignment of certain pupils to other teachers. Sometimes it is a joint conference of pupil, parent, teacher, and principal. But, frequently, disturbances run so deep that the assistance of specially trained persons must be sought. Fortunate is the school system that has such resources available.

Using and Improving Special Personnel Resources for Pupil Guidance

Many school systems now have available the following special personnel:

1. GUIDANCE COUNSELLORS. Most medium and large-size high schools in America have guidance counsellors. But only rarely are such special personnel found in elementary schools. This difference in practice is due largely to the fact that high school teachers meet many students during the school day and become well acquainted with relatively few of them. Elementary teachers, on the other hand, spend most or all of the day with one group of children. Counsellors in the secondary school spend their time both collecting appropriate information about pupils and using it in the guidance process. In the elementary schools, teachers get to know a great deal about their pupils, but have no free time to discuss problems with others or to provide long-term counselling. Such activities must be carried on after school or squeezed into a busy schedule. Guidance counsellors, in the few elementary schools where they exist, help the busy teacher with many problems that come to his attention, but require the kind of concentrated study regular classroom duties make difficult or impossible.

2. VISITING TEACHERS. In systems where they are employed, visiting teachers serve primarily as a human link between school and home. Problems of tardiness and truancy particularly fall within their province.

¹⁴ Fritz Redl and William W. Wattenberg, *Mental Hygiene in Teaching* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1951), p. 200.

But duties frequently are extended to include various kinds of testing, in-service education of teachers, and sometimes even the supervision of instruction. Because this sphere of operations frequently is ill-defined, duties tend to correspond with the preparation and experience of those selected. Some systems hire social workers for these positions, and much time is spent in problems of home and family welfare. Where teachers are selected, duties frequently lie close to the instructional program and its environment. Desirable criteria for selection of visiting teachers include classroom teaching experience, some social work training, keen interest in human beings, and both understanding of and sympathy for the impoverished conditions out of which so many problems of home-school relations arise. Very frequently, visiting teachers serve effectively as itinerant guidance counsellors who help teachers in several schools.¹⁵

3. SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS. Few schools have their own child psychologist. But full- or part-time services of a psychologist within a school system are becoming more common. Where programs are successful, it frequently will be found that the psychologist works with teachers rather than with individual children. Virtually every teacher has a case or two for which he feels the need of special help. Maintaining enough psychologists to care for all these children in a system would be extremely expensive business. Usually, too, the teacher knows the children better and is in a more advantageous position for giving assistance. The psychologist, then, serves as a consultant in examining data, collecting supplementary evidence, helping the teacher to devise alternative remedial measures, and assisting in various follow-up activities. A psychologist is an important link in a school system's in-service education program.

4. PSYCHIATRISTS. The psychiatrist serves as a source of help for those few children who represent rather serious problems in mental hygiene. Few systems maintain their own psychiatrist, but many draw upon such resources part-time, contribute to the support of a child guidance clinic that retains psychiatrists, or maintain approved referral lists. Psychiatrists usually work directly with children as well as with the principal or teachers of schools from which cases are referred. Treatment may accompany or actually be substituted for the child's attendance at school. Wherever possible, continued attendance is advised in order that the child will not lose contact or become set apart.

Here are some ways in which the elementary school principal can assume effective leadership in assuring appropriate use of special services personnel.

¹⁵ See Chap. 9 for a more extensive discussion of the visiting teacher program.

1. When it is learned that a guidance counsellor is to be added to the faculty, sit down with the entire group for a discussion of how his services may be used most effectively.

2. Repeat the session when the counsellor arrives, perhaps beginning with, "How can we help you to perform your job effectively?" The counsellor who is worth his salt will then respond, "Now, how can I be of assistance to you folks in the many responsibilities and duties you have to carry?"

3. Carry on similar discussions regarding any other of the special personnel services that are added from time to time.

4. Arrange for evaluative discussions that include special personnel in order to determine how well things are going.

5. Consult these resource persons for suggestions of reading appropriate to understanding their work, and make material available to faculty members.

6. Take the initiative in exploring ways by which several existing resources may be brought into the closest possible cooperation for pupil welfare.

7. Take the initiative in exploring with other principals and with system superintendents ways in which the resources of several systems may be brought into cooperative relations. It may be found, for example, that a child guidance clinic for a given system is quite out of the question, whereas for several systems combined it is an attainable reality. This step may be the specific responsibility of the superintendent, but wise superintendents depend heavily upon their principals for counsel.

In broad summary, it may be said that maximum pupil growth and development occur when pupil personnel policies are designed with human rather than administrative ends in view, when the school environment is free of the many unnecessary friction-producing elements that foster pupil unrest and dissatisfaction, when school attitudes toward pupil misdemeanors emphasize removal of cause and encourage corrective rather than punitive action, and when special resources are used to supplement rather than substitute for teacher resources. With the principal of the elementary school rests primary responsibility for initiating and guiding the cooperative planning among pupils, parents, teachers, and other concerned persons that makes the creation of such conditions possible. This is the kind of responsibility that goes far beyond rendering custodial care, accounting for supplies, arranging for special events, planning for building repairs, and accounting to the central office. It is the only kind of responsibility that justifies a high level of professional preparation for the elementary school principal and a

salary commensurate with the office and the preparation and experience back of it. It is, indeed, the only kind of responsibility that justifies the presence of an educator rather than an efficient clerk in the honored sanctum commonly referred to as "The Office."

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDY

1. The fourth and fifth grades in the Magpie Elementary School together comprise 107 pupils and three teachers. The grades above each comprise one class and the grades below each contain two classes. Mr. Smithson, the principal, appointed the three fourth- and fifth-grade teachers to recommend a plan for dividing the 107 pupils among them. They recommended giving an intelligence test, arranging the children in order from highest to lowest obtained score, and then selecting the forty highest for one group, the next thirty-five for the next group, and the remaining thirty-two for the third group. The teachers were then to draw lots for their groups. Mr. Smithson liked the plan and promptly directed its fulfillment. Three days later, a large delegation of irate parents came to his office demanding an explanation of the whole plan. He agreed to call a general meeting of all parents for two weeks hence to discuss the matter. Mr. Smithson has now come to you, a neighboring principal, requesting that you serve as discussion leader on the evening in question and seek to arrive at a more popular solution.

- (a) How would you have handled the pupil assignment problem from the beginning?
- (b) Had you appointed the committee, as Mr. Smithson did, how would you have proceeded from the time the report was brought in?
- (c) Now that things have progressed as described above, how would you handle Mr. Smithson's request?

2. You are principal of a graded elementary school. A second-grade teacher comes to you in January to say that Sue Thomas, a brilliant pupil, has been given every possible enrichment opportunity, but the teacher's resources are simply exhausted. Sue has been given special problems, advanced books, and extra responsibilities; but it gets more and more difficult to think up stimulating activities. What advice and help would you give this teacher?

3. The third, fourth, and fifth grades in the Moringtown School, like most classes in most schools, have a half-dozen pupils who present severe or unusual learning problems. At a recent faculty meeting, it was proposed that the five most severe cases be removed from each of the six rooms involved and placed in a special "Opportunity Class" comprising all three grades. These thirty children would then be given additional opportunity in handicrafts, and so on, and allowed to progress at their own speed. How do you react to this proposal?

4. Defend one of the following reasons (or one of your own) to explain the division of public education into elementary and secondary schools.

- (a) Such a division is in line with what we know about child growth and development.
- (b) Such a division came about historically because of the unrelated beginnings of elementary and high schools in America.
- (c) Such a division is economical and efficient.

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

- Association for Childhood Education International, *Grouping: Problems and Satisfaction*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1954.
- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Guidance in the Curriculum*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1955.
- Bohn, Harry J., *Introduction to Exceptional Children*. Rev. ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953.
- Bernard, Harold W., C. E. James, and Franklin R. Zeran, *Guidance Services in Elementary Schools*. New York: Chartwell House, Inc., 1954.
- Buhler, Charlotte, Faith Smittner, and Sybil R. Richardson, *Childhood Problems and the Teacher*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1952.
- Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1945.
- Department of Elementary School Principals, *Guidance for Today's Children*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1954.
- Foshay, A. Wellesley, "Interage Grouping in the Elementary School." Unpublished Ed.D. project; New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.
- Goodlad, John I., "Research and Theory Regarding Promotion and Nonpromotion," *Elementary School Journal*, 53:150-155 (November), 1952.
- Hamrin, S. A., *Initiating and Administering Guidance Services*. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight & McKnight, 1953.
- Lindgren, Henry C., *Mental Health in Education*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1954.
- National Society for the Study of Education, *Mental Health in Modern Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955.
- Otto, Henry J., *Elementary School Organization and Administration*. 3rd ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954.
- Redl, Fritz, and William W. Wattenberg, *Mental Hygiene in Teaching*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1951.
- Richmond Public Schools, *Handbook for Junior Primary Teachers*. Richmond, Va.: Division of Instruction, Richmond Public Schools, 1949.
- Sheviakov, George V., and Fritz Redl, *Discipline for Today's Children and Youth*. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, N.E.A., 1944.

9~

The Use of Special School Services and Pupil Activities

THE WELFARE of boys and girls as they progress through the elementary school is dependent in part upon the effective utilization of a host of special school services. Certain of these having direct bearing upon pupil guidance and adjustment—guidance counsellors, visiting teachers, psychologists, and psychiatrists—were discussed in the previous chapter. In addition to these services, there are a number of pupil activities not always thought of as being central to the curriculum that have tremendous potential for wholesome child development.

The *services* to be discussed here might be thought of as “school-centered,” because school officials have responsibility for assuring their existence. These include, in one group, transportation, health, and lunch-room facilities. In another group, more closely related to the process of instruction itself, are supervision, special teaching personnel, and the library.

The *activities* may be described as “pupil-centered,” because they have full value only when planned for, with, and by children. These include a number of entertainment and recreational activities such as plays, concerts, and parties. They include also assembly programs, student publications, and student councils or advisory groups.

In connection with these services and activities, the job of the elementary school principal is threefold: (1) to work with lay people, the board of education, the superintendent, and other school personnel in seeing that essential services are provided and maintained, (2) to assure that the welfare of each child is maintained as the central focus, and (3)

to assure that teachers will utilize services and activities and that they will do so in accord with good instructional principles.

PUPIL WELFARE SERVICES

Transportation Facilities

Pupil transportation usually does not present a major school problem in heavily populated areas where public facilities are good and the school's geographic zone of pupil supply is relatively small. Similarly, in small rural schools the problem is a minor one because a single bus usually suffices. Children arrive and leave together, the major concern being the length of time away from home for those picked up first in the morning and dropped off last in the afternoon. Transportation problems take on formidable proportions when a relatively large elementary school serves a broad geographic area, as is usually the case, for example, when several schools have been consolidated into one.¹

The Crescent faculty faced some crucial transportation problems because of local school consolidation. The school had been growing rapidly in the postwar period, and several rooms had been added. The Board of Education decided to close three small schools that gradually had been decreasing in enrollment because of the encroachment of industrial development. About seventy-five pupils were assigned to Crescent School and the remainder to a school on the opposite side of the three to be closed.

Fortunately, the move had been planned for some time. The assistant superintendent of county schools and members of the Board had been conducting meetings with parents in the three schools for several months. Parents and children had visited Crescent School the previous spring. There had been several joint teachers' meetings. Two new classrooms were completed just before school opened. Transportation problems had been discussed, and it was understood that the move did not justify the purchase of new buses. Naturally, the whole enterprise was accompanied by a good deal of tension and uncertainty.²

The faculty had been unable to do the planning they wished the previous year because of the many unknowns and the closing of school. Shortly before school opened, the principal and the superintendent completed a tentative plan for pupil transportation, to serve only until all

¹ For a discussion of large-scale planning in transportation in one state, see W. B. Southerlin, "State Control of Transportation Is a Vital Part of South Carolina's Plan," *Nation's Schools*, 52:62-66 (December), 1953.

² For an analysis of certain legal aspects of a school board's responsibility in providing pupil transportation, see Lee O. Garber, "When Must a School District Provide Transportation?" *Nation's Schools*, 52:76-77 (November), 1953.

involved had a chance to evolve something better. They then notified the parents and invited them, new and old alike, to an evening meeting to take place two weeks after the opening of school.

As soon as classes were reasonably settled, the faculty was called together to discuss the problem. They examined potential pressure points and laid out methods of attack and lists of those who should be involved in further work and study. The group moved quickly, the approaching parent meeting providing a sense of urgency. By the time parents, representatives of the student body, teachers, and administrators were brought together, several alternative proposals had been carefully examined. Here are the major problems and what finally was done about them:

1. SUFFICIENT TRANSPORTATION FACILITIES.³ The assistant superintendent of county schools outlined the over-all system to indicate the framework within which planning had to take place. It soon became apparent that buses available would have to leave outlying districts very early and return very late. It was agreed that time could be saved by restricting service only to those for whom walking was not feasible. But this was not done on an arbitrary "distance" basis. A careful zoning map was prepared by a realtor-parent, who became a member of the committee. A group of older pupils inspected the routes. It was agreed to provide transportation along heavy traffic arteries and long, wooded stretches where children might be endangered. A parent committee set up a car pool system quite apart from the school's auspices, making special provisions for expanding these services on wet days. Some parents who had refused to give up the services previously enjoyed agreed to let their children walk when they saw that the only alternative was a very early pickup. A final, careful check showed that those children picked up first in the morning were among the first to be returned at night. A look at the total problem soon convinced those with ready panaceas that such schemes benefited only a very few.

2. EARLY ARRIVALS AND LATE DEPARTURES. Another committee—again composed of children, teachers, and parents—came up with two proposals that looked equally good.

(a) Stagger the opening and closing hours of the school day, and place certain activities appropriate to mixed age groups at the beginning and end. One group of committee members actually began to think through the possibilities and examined activities in music, art, and physical educa-

³ A system of school buses should be regarded as serving broader functions than getting children to and from school. For an account, with real practices described, see Robert M. Isenberg, "Discovering Better Education through Extended Use of Busses," *Nation's Schools*, 52:76-79 (September), 1953.

tion. The key idea was that groups would be made up of busloads as they arrived, regular classes beginning soon after the arrival of the last busload. These last arrivals would then have the longest "enrichment" period, as it was to be called, in the afternoon. Parents as well as teachers were to participate in the activities. How well the plan might have operated is not known, because a beginning teacher tossed in the idea that ultimately was put to use.

(b) Arrange a recreational program into which each busload might be incorporated upon arrival. The staffing problem almost blocked this one, but it was then that a recent physical education graduate of the local college came through with a plan that was accepted. Subsequently, the head of the physical education department in the college agreed to service the program in conjunction with the student teaching program—on condition that one-fifth of the regular teaching body would serve each day. Prospective student teachers from the college were then brought into the planning and programs—outdoor and indoor, afternoon and morning—were drawn up. The P.T.A. agreed to provide light refreshments for children having a long, after-school wait.

3. BUS BEHAVIOR. The planning for transportation provided an opportunity to open the question of bus behavior, a problem that had flared up periodically. Here, the initial study was carried on by three members of the school council, a teacher, a parent, and one of the bus drivers. They came up not with a set of rules and regulations but with a program of education.⁴ It was agreed that each bus would carry an older boy, selected from the load, to serve as a supplementary member of the safety patrol. Wherever possible, boys who lived near the end of the line were selected, but each bus group was responsible for its own selection and for reporting the effectiveness of the plan. Student assemblies and classroom activities gave attention to bus behavior. A permanent committee was established, again including representatives from the groups mentioned, to review the problem periodically.

The transportation problem has not been neatly tucked away at Crescent School. There are rough moments because of kinks that develop. But the public relations problem no longer is troublesome. The parents understand why transportation facilities are as they are—and probably will be ready to vote for the bond issue next fall, since new buses will be provided thereby.

When it is realized that one out of every three children attending school is transported at a cost of about 5 per cent of the total expenditure for

⁴ For a discussion of possibilities for "education on the bus," with an illustration of parents, teachers, bus drivers, and pupils working together, see, "Educational News and Editorial Comment," *Elementary School Journal*, 54:8-9 (September), 1953.

public education, the significance of school transportation to principals becomes obvious.⁵ Beyond the mechanics of providing a ride for every child, there is a host of additional problems that demands attention. The elementary school principal involved in a plan of pupil transportation may need to look carefully into the following:

1. The bus codes covering the structure and load capacities for vehicles used in the state. In 1955, forty-four states had regulations on the books, and the other four recommended them.⁶

2. Police enforcement of the state laws governing vehicles passing school buses on the highway.

3. Qualifications for bus drivers and provision for initial and in-service training.

4. The time period between leaving and returning home for transported children. One of the most invidious concomitants of school consolidation has been the over-all increase in length of school day for so many children. The school principal must check into existing conditions to ascertain that they are the best possible for children within whatever financial limitations exist.

5. Use of school buses in connection with the instructional program. In some states, there are regulations preventing such use; in others, there are no specifications whatsoever. Most teachers would agree that availability of buses for field trips offers much opportunity for program enrichment. If buses are to be so used, the contribution to the educational program must be commensurate with the cost.

Health Services and Facilities

In the realm of health, the elementary school has three functions: (1) to provide for the development of health information, habits, attitudes, and skills in pupils; (2) to provide a healthful environment for learning;⁷ and (3) to provide certain health services and facilities essential to pupils' welfare and learning.

It is recognized that all three of these functions are related, but this section is concerned expressly with the last. The elementary school principal must take leadership in assuring that

1. CAREFUL OBSERVATION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN IS AN AUTOMATIC COMPONENT OF THE DAILY SCHEDULE. Teachers can become highly skilled in

⁵ E. Glenn Featherston, "School Transportation," *School Executive*, 14:64-65 (January), 1955.

⁶ *Ibid.*

⁷ Providing a wholesome physical environment means both actively improving the environment and refraining from injecting negative influences into it. In this regard, see Harold H. Punke, "Bad Practices Defeat Good Intentions in Health Education," *Nation's Schools*, 52:58-59 (July), 1953.

identifying signs of impending illness in children and indications of serious impairment in seeing or hearing. It is suggested that local public health officers or practicing physicians be invited to meet with the school faculty in alerting teachers to their responsibility, educating them in regard to observable symptoms, and working out referral responsibilities.

2. HEALTH INFORMATION ABOUT EACH CHILD IS RECORDED AND PASSED ALONG TO THE HIGH SCHOOL WITH THE CHILD. Elementary school faculties should examine the many recording systems available and adopt, where local freedom is given, the record form best suited to their needs. Both the National Education Association and the American Medical Association supply information in this connection.

3. CHILDREN RECEIVE REGULAR MEDICAL AND DENTAL EXAMINATIONS. The school cannot and should not take on the functions of the home and other community institutions. At the same time, the elementary school is the one institution that brings together all the children of all the people. On this basis, then, the school becomes a logical pooling place for cooperative endeavor. The home is responsible for assuring preschool dental and medical care and for subsequent health needs of children. But the school can and should assist through cooperating with home and public health agencies in arranging periodic medical and dental inspections. Public health physicians and nurses, teachers, and parents working together in providing this service assure not only better health care of children but also better understanding and general cooperation among all three agencies.⁸ It should be noted that considerable medical and dental service that would not otherwise have been provided children has been made available through the cooperative efforts of these three groups and various civic organizations.

4. THE RESULTS OF PERIODIC CHECKUPS CONDUCTED IN THE SCHOOL ARE REFERRED TO PARENTS. The findings from physical and dental examinations filed in the office of principal or medical health officer never will improve a child's health. Information must be conveyed to parents promptly and confidentially.

5. PROVISION IS MADE FOR FIRST-AID SERVICES AND FOR CLEAR, RAPID LINES OF COMMUNICATION IN CASE OF EMERGENCY. First-aid services must be thought of as providing necessary life-preserving measures until skilled assistance is reached. They must never be thought of as *alternative* measures. A school principal cannot afford to think of legal provisions when a child is bleeding to death. He must apply a tourniquet or take whatever other action his best judgment dictates. But then, when the immediate emer-

⁸ B. L. Kahn, "Cooperation among Agencies for a Dental Health Survey in the Schools, Followed by Community-wide Action," *American Journal of Public Health*, 42:1043-1044 (September), 1952.

gency is past, he cannot ignore legal aspects. For the sake of both the child and himself, the parent must be notified and a competent physician consulted. Many elementary school principals, moved by humanitarian motives alone, have neglected the precaution of medical clearance, to their later sorrow. Regrettably, a few unhappy court cases have caused some principals to back away from first-aid actions they knew to be important to a child's well-being. It follows, then, that

- (a) One or more members of an elementary school faculty should be skilled in the various diagnostic and remedial aspects of first aid.
- (b) Parents should be notified as promptly as possible.
- (c) First-aid measures taken should be checked by a physician. Such procedure exempts no one from the possibility of court action, but it is valuable evidence should legal proceedings be introduced against any faculty member as a result of a child's death or serious injury. (See Chapter 3.)
- (d) Notification of the parent and of appropriate medical personnel must occur simultaneously when it appears that every second is essential to the child's welfare.
- (e) Procedures to be followed are worked out with the entire faculty. The principal is not absolved from responsibility simply because he happened not to be there at the time.

The debate over the school's responsibility for providing medical and dental services is largely a meaningless one. It simply is not an either-or proposition. The school's primary function is the development of a child's learning abilities. We know that the total organism—mental and physical—is involved in the process. The school, therefore, scarcely can afford to ignore the debilitating effects of ill-health upon the development of academic skills. The child profits when school, home, and health agency see him at the same place at the same time. It is appropriate for public health officials to take the initiative, for the school to be the locale, and for parents to be involved at all stages.⁹

Lunchroom Facilities

As Otto stated back in 1944, "The school lunch program can now be said to have been generally accepted as an important phase of the school's health and educational program."¹⁰ And as he predicted at that time, the

⁹ For further discussion of these and other health services, together with a helpful bibliography, see Marie Ford, "School Health Services in England and the United States," *Elementary School Journal*, 55:279-287 (January), 1955.

¹⁰ Henry J. Otto, *Elementary School Organization and Administration* (2nd ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944), p. 419.

intervening years have been devoted to refinement of procedures and to inclusion of the elementary school cafeteria as a focal point for school living and learning.

It is safe to conclude that elementary school principals are overly pre-occupied not only with the cafeteria as a whole but specifically with the management aspects of it. Like so many practical aspects of school administration, it presents a host of problems and of jobs to be done. It is so easy to bury oneself in these problems, to the neglect of leadership functions. Let us, then, look at several of the key problems involved and examine some of the means of handling them.

ADEQUATE FACILITIES. Unless the principal is fortunate enough to be in on the initial planning of his building, there frequently is little he can do about the space provisions. He can do much, however, to make facilities more attractive and efficient. In one school, careful faculty planning and a little carpentry work provided by the county resulted in better use of existing space and circumvented construction of a new lunchroom.¹¹ In another, a dispenser resulted in more economical and hygienic milk supply. Still another has a pupil-parent committee to change pictures periodically and supply flowers for each table. In still another instance, parents, teachers, and children joined forces in completely renovating existing facilities. Long tables and benches were replaced with chairs and tables for six. Warming tables were purchased and new serving arrangements introduced. The room was painted in soft shades and decorated with pictures, curtains, and useful cupboards. In no one of these instances was the principal an overworked martyr. He simply recognized a need and brought together appropriate planning groups. Rolling up one's sleeves with the work gang frequently is necessary—and helps gain acceptance as a "good fellow"—but it is so easy to let this kind of involvement take the place of the visionary leadership that constitutes the principal's real reason for existence.

PERSONNEL PROVISIONS. The principal's headaches are largely over when a competent cafeteria manager is obtained. Obviously, the ideal is an employee of the school system who has been trained for this work. Some school systems, in this connection, employ home economics specialists. The cafeteria manager must be directly responsible to the school principal and included in the affairs of the faculty. The practice of separating the

¹¹ Another solution for the space problem where schools have outgrown the original lunchroom is serving lunches in classrooms from portable steam tables. See, for example, Frank O. Moosberg, "Serving Lunches in Classrooms," *Nation's Schools*, 52:96-98 (September), 1953. Some school buildings are now planned with a view to serving lunches in the familylike atmosphere of individual classrooms.

cafeteria and its personnel from the rest of the educational enterprise is to be deplored.¹² In some schools, for example, the cafeteria is responsible directly to a central supervisor and operates virtually as a separate unit of the school. The main reason claimed for so doing is economy and efficiency. But, too often, the cafeteria is lost as a laboratory for nutrition education and social education. This development, sufficiently common in practice to arouse real concern, could become the thin edge of the wedge in departmentalizing school services across system-wide lines. The principal would become merely a spectator in his own school. In all school practice it must be remembered that the principal is final authority in the school unit and is personally responsible to the school superintendent.

In small schools, effective lunchroom programs may be conducted under parent supervision. These schools should not despair of the highly mechanized, efficient programs they see in large city schools. For them, a family-like lunchroom with simple procedures not only is more appropriate but also may be much more effective nutritionally and educationally.

FINANCIAL ARRANGEMENTS. The basic problem with many schools is making the lunchroom pay for itself.¹³ Some school communities frankly recognize the cafeteria as a losing venture and subsidize. For others, federal assistance through surplus foodstuffs and financial subsidies means the difference between a balanced budget and bankruptcy.

One cannot help observing the financial differences between individual schools in the same system. School X provides a meager lunch, eked out with federal grants of surplus dried apples, and just barely maintains a profit-loss balance. School Y, three miles away, provides a varied menu and uses its profits in providing Thanksgiving and Christmas turkey dinners. Disparities in parental income provide a partial explanation, but there usually is much more to the difference than this. Very often, schools like X operate the lunchroom as a marginal activity. Children are herded in and out, gulp their food while seated at long, bare tables, and then carry on the rest of the daily activities with no reference to the lunch period. The cafeteria is not used for educational purposes. Frequently, too, little effort is made to educate parents to the advantages of the lunchroom program, and so, many parents regard it simply as another school money-raising device.

¹² For suggestions regarding improving cafeteria personnel problems, see Orpha Mae Thomas, "Planning with the Manager for a Successful School Lunch," *American School Board Journal*, 126:39-40 (June), 1953.

¹³ The elementary school district at Norwalk, California, took a new look at the problem and decided to use a central kitchen to serve ten new schools. See Bruce R. Butler, "Ten Cafeterias Are Served by This School District's Central Kitchen," *Nation's Schools*, 52:92-100 (October), 1953.

The school cafeteria is likely to be a going concern when

1. An active public relations program in relation to it is carried on. This involves, first, informing parents regarding what the lunchroom program can do for them—avoiding the implication that it is designed to remedy home neglect. It can be strengthened by having parents serve on a committee delegated to supervise and improve cafeteria operation. Sending home weekly menus is helpful to parents trying to balance children's diets, and inviting parents to eat with children occasionally (at regular prices, of course) helps build understanding.

2. Its potential as an educational device is recognized and used normally and naturally, with no attempt being made to distort its primary, nutritional functions for miscellaneous, remotely related educational ends.

3. All children are required to eat in the cafeteria, whether or not they bring a lunch, and are encouraged to share even in a partial manner in what is offered (for example, the purchase of soup and milk).

4. Children are "in on" the cafeteria and its problems. In many instances, cafeterias have prospered financially only after being taken over by pupil groups under faculty supervision.¹⁴ A 1954 survey of 523 elementary schools across the nation revealed that, in half of them, children assisted in serving and that, in two-thirds of them, children assisted in cleaning up.¹⁵

It should be superfluous to point out (but observation suggests otherwise) that it is sheer waste of taxpayers' money to allow a school principal to spend daily time counting lunch money. A child counting, and another checking, disposes of the problem expeditiously and to the benefit of both the children and the educational enterprise. It should be unnecessary, also, to advise principals to have the accounts regularly audited.

PUPIL PERSONNEL. The differences between an elementary school cafeteria where only the unrelenting supervision of teachers keeps cutlery from flying and one where all is calm, orderly, and relaxed are very obvious and usually readily explained. Replacing long tables and benches with family-size units and improving the surroundings frequently explain the margin of difference. Planning for cafeteria use in the daily schedule sometimes does wonders. But usually the major causative factors are as subtle as those that affect classroom environment. One elementary school faculty had tried virtually everything that the home economics specialists

¹⁴ For interesting accounts of profitable pupil involvement in the school cafeteria and its problems, see W. L. Colombo, "Operations Cafeteria," *Clearing House*, 28:98-99 (October), 1953; and Joseph Schreiber, "Pupils Learn As Well As Eat," *Nation's Schools*, 52:76-80 (August), 1953.

¹⁵ "National Survey Reveals Lunch Needs," *School Executive*, 14:145-146 (January), 1955.

said about desirable lunchroom environment. Things were better but lunch-time supervision still was giving most teachers indigestion. The solution came quite by chance when a visitor sat in on a faculty meeting. One teacher brought forth the statement that, in spite of all their efforts, the teachers still were dissatisfied with lunchroom conditions. The visitor asked if the children were dissatisfied. That casual question started off a whole new approach to the problem. Serious discussion with pupils revealed that they regarded the teachers at one side and themselves at the other in reference to the entire problem. They resented the implication that they were unable to behave themselves without supervision and actually sabotaged the teachers' efforts. The teachers began to realize that their planning had been motivated by a selfish desire to conduct the lunch period as they wanted it. Further planning was carried on with teachers and children involved together, and the almost miraculous changes that occurred reflected mutual rather than selfish interests. It is so easy to forget that living with children involves curtailment of personal liberties and that schools are for children learning and not teachers teaching.¹⁶

At the risk of negative teaching, a list of danger signals in regard to the lunchroom program is presented for the principal's perusal. If even a few of these are characteristic of the lunchroom in your school, careful self and situational analysis is advised.

1. The cafeteria and surrounding rooms and corridors have that unmistakable "stale cooked food" odor. The best time to check for "C.O."—cafeteria odor—is when the building has been closed up for several days.
2. Lunchroom personnel suddenly begin to rebuke children sharply, serve food hurriedly, or give some other manifestation of tenseness. Chances are some interpersonal problem has arisen within the staff. Careful observation is advised, and a powwow with the entire group may be necessary.
3. There is much pushing, shoving, and tripping among all classes as they move through the line. It may well be that too little time for eating is allotted each group.
4. Classes begin to get very noisy toward the end of the lunch period. Chances are that some children are finishing long before the others. Having teachers place slow eaters first in the line to be served often will solve this problem.
5. Serenity prevails at all but one or two of the lunch periods each day.

¹⁶ For a description of how schools in one system reorganized the lunchroom schedule to eliminate noise and confusion, see Elizabeth Goodman, "Minneapolis Schools Like Their Staggered Lunch Periods," *Nation's Schools*, 52:92-94 (November), 1953.

There may be friction between two classes that share the room. Scheduling one of them at another time may be the best solution.

6. Several classes always are unusually noisy and boisterous. Unless this is checked, other teachers may have added difficulty in maintaining order. Often, teachers of these noisy groups are desperate to bring about improvement and will welcome your help. These people frequently need classroom help, too, and working with them on the cafeteria difficulty may be the avenue you're looking for to get at the teaching problem. Having lunch with these troublesome groups may be a good beginning point.

7. Tables are long and undecorated. Walls are bleak and uninviting. This may be the opportunity you're looking for. Bringing parents, teachers, and children together on this problem may mark the beginning of a new era in school-community relations and pupil-teacher planning. The problem is obvious and tangible. Working at it promises an early "success experience."

8. You spend a large proportion of your day in cafeteria-related activities: counting money, listening to tales of children who forget their money, receiving parents who are bringing money the children forgot, unscrambling pile-ups because some classes were delayed too long in being served, listening to complaints of lunchroom personnel, and so on. Under circumstances such as these, one is advised to look long and hard into a mirror, because the trouble lies close to home. Daily irritations frequently reflect inadequacies in structural organization and management of the educational enterprise.¹⁷

SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICES

Increasingly, the modern American elementary school has available to it an array of special instructional services. It is the duty of the principal to provide the leadership needed in relating these services effectively to the improvement of classroom instruction.

Supervisory Services

Three broad categories of supervisory services may be identified:

1. STATE SUPERVISORS, OPERATING FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION OR OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION. When a comparatively large staff is available, area supervisors are assigned, frequently, to a section of the state, and partial decentralization is thus effected. More often, several persons operate from a central office, spreading their services over the state. Essentially, such persons are representatives of the state education office. They help

¹⁷ See the suggestions for more effective cafeteria operation by Kathleen Meadows, "School Officials: Look at Your Lunch Program," *School Executive*, 71:99-102 (June), 1952.

to disseminate information from the central office, to check on the use of state funds, to assess conformance of local systems to state laws, and so on.¹⁸ But, in addition, these persons are on call to assist with local problems of schools or school systems. For many rural schools the area supervisor or consultant is the chief source of outside help and stimulation.

2. GENERAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SUPERVISORS SERVING A COUNTY OR CITY SYSTEM AND EMPLOYED BY THAT SYSTEM. These persons usually carry responsibility for system-wide curriculum revision and instructional improvement. In many school systems they are organized under a director of curriculum and instruction. The focus here is upon teacher improvement, with children's betterment a hoped-for outcome, rather than upon direct contact with individual children.¹⁹

3. SPECIAL SUPERVISORS OF VARIOUS KINDS EMPLOYED BY THE LOCAL SYSTEM. Most commonly, these cover the fields of art, music, and physical education. Occasionally, too, one finds coordinators of audio-visual education, special pupil personnel services, and so on. Again, focus is upon in-service education of the classroom teacher.²⁰

As the principal surveys these resources, certain rather obvious questions must be dealt with. One group of questions has to do with the development of understanding. What are the functions and responsibilities of special supervisory personnel? Under what conditions are their services available? What administrative relation exists between supervisory personnel and the individual school unit? Elementary school principals are urged to invite these persons to preplanning sessions or to faculty meetings early in the school year.²¹ Much later misunderstanding may be so circumvented. Supervisors usually are quick to point out that they are "service" personnel, going whenever and wherever needed. They will ask teachers how they may give help, avoiding any suggestions of superimposing superior abilities upon weak or insecure teachers.

Still another set of questions has to do with the use of supervisory services. Teachers need to be helped to see how supervision should and should not be used. Should teachers attend called meetings where the supervisor lectures on what he believes to be important? Should supervisors give demonstration lessons? Should teachers release children several hours each

¹⁸ For a sampling of supervisory help at this level in several states, see Harold Spears, *Improving the Supervision of Instruction* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953), pp. 214-224.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 247-255.

²⁰ The principal's role in this regard is a significant one that has been discussed elsewhere in this volume. See also, Harold Spears, "The Administrator's Responsibility for Supervision," *American School Board Journal*, 127:27-28 (December), 1953.

²¹ Concepts of the supervisor's role are undergoing change and need to be re-examined by all involved. See Faith Smither, "Changing Concepts Affect Supervision," *Educational Leadership*, 10:375-380 (March), 1953.

week to rehearse with the music supervisor for an impending concert or festival? Should supervisors observe teachers at work and prepare critical reports?

Teachers' deepest insecurities lie close to their day-by-day conduction of the teaching and learning process. Their attendance at in-service clinics, workshops, classes, and so on, is indication that they want help.²² *But they want help on their own terms.* These terms are, first, nonpersonal ones. With most teachers, inviting someone into their classroom is like inviting someone into their homes. They want to be prepared. They want to do the inviting. The wise principal sees that the supervisor comes invited to the school and classrooms. First contacts, therefore, should be on a group basis; faculty and supervisor meet together. If the supervisor is worth his salt, invitations will follow. Later invitations will be too many to handle if real assistance is provided in these initial visits. But if teachers are threatened, made to feel inferior, or in any way intimidated, the supervisor soon ceases to perform any positive service.²³

The special supervisor in art, music, or physical education usually is the worst offender in regard to relations with teachers, and teachers themselves are a primary cause of the difficulty. Many classroom teachers, feeling insecure because of inadequate background in one or more of these fields, reach out eagerly for the supervisor's help. The supervisor, perhaps naively thinking he has found a steppingstone to a sound supervisory relationship, suddenly finds himself taking over the class. Too often, the teacher remains a spectator and gains only rest from his brief lapse of duty. Rapport may become worse rather than better when the supervisor now exercises his ingenuity in sliding out of the predicament. No good service is performed unless the teacher is guided to acquire the skills and understandings needed for carrying on alone.

The teacher certainly is not the primary cause of undesirable supervisory practice. Physical education supervisors too often pull children from classes at schedules suited to their own patterns of school visitation. Music supervisors frequently stage "performances" of specially selected children in the misguided notion that such public displays serve to justify their own existence. Art supervisors sometimes try to put their special style stamp on children's work. But all of these are extreme illustrations. They do exist, but are far overshadowed by the thousands of examples

²² See Lawrence M. Brammer, "Counselling for Teachers—The Supervisor's Opportunity and Responsibility," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 39:259-268 (May), 1953.

For a report of a study into what teachers want from supervision, see Richard E. Gross, "Teachers Want Supervision!" *School Executive*, 72:52-53 (August), 1953.

²³ For a discussion of some of the above questions against a background of three cases involving principal-teacher-supervisor relations, see Homer W. Anderson, "When, Why and How of Teacher Supervision," *Nation's Schools*, 52:61-62 (September), 1953.

of sound, forward-looking practice common to school systems all over America.²⁴

Working closely together, principal and supervisor can be an effective team for instructional improvement. For example, together they can overcome the dangers of demonstration lessons and still provide what teachers have in mind when they request them. Individual principals can do much to encourage interclassroom visitation by teachers within their own schools. The primary motive might well be to see what children do in grades that precede and follow. It must never be for the purpose of judging one another's teaching. When teachers begin to get comfortable with this sort of thing, the desire to visit in other schools often arises. Then, the supervisor is helpful in suggesting schools to visit when teachers make requests to observe specific kinds of activities. Intervisitation permits teachers to see what they want to see in its natural setting. Demonstration lessons always have an atmosphere of artificiality. Generally, they should be used not to "demonstrate," unless to develop a very specific idea or technique, but rather to serve as a basis for exploring teaching problems in a group setting.

Supervisors are nonadministrative personnel who exist solely for the purpose of serving, never replacing, the classroom teacher. They become negative influences whenever placed in the role of passing judgment on the merits of individual classroom teachers.

Visiting Teachers

The term "visiting teacher" should in no way be associated with "truant officer," even though there is an historical relation between the two. Basically, the truant officer was an enforcement official. Today's visiting teacher is in a very real sense a guidance person seeking to get at cause and remedy of maladjustment. Some of the activities carried on in this role are

1. Serving as liaison between home and school in the clarification of school policies, rules and regulations, and home expectations.
2. Seeking out background information in the case of children whose school performance is marked by temper outbursts, aggression against teachers and school property, and other manifestations of personal stress and tension.
3. Getting at family conditions producing tardiness and excessive absence.
4. Helping parents to accept realistic standards and attainments for children in the light of all available evidence.

²⁴ See, for example, the illustrative practice cited throughout William T. Melchior, *Instructional Supervision* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1950).

5. Assisting teachers and parents alike to secure accurate information about special services available to children and appropriate channels for utilizing them.
6. Aiding courts and other agencies in securing information about children brought to them and in working out rehabilitation programs.

It becomes obvious that a major key to successful functioning of the visiting teacher is understanding of function by parents and teachers. The principal must see to it that clear interpretations are made. The visiting teacher should be invited to explain his work to groups of teachers and parents. Children must be helped to see that this person is for them, not against them. But such attempts at clarification can only open the door to understanding. The visiting teacher's own performances must do the rest. Teachers, parents, and children will develop confidence when they know that their confidences are respected and when they are able to see beneficial outcomes.²⁵

The ideal background of preparation is a combination of social work, psychology, and education, together with classroom teaching experience. The visiting teacher need not be a highly trained clinician, because he is not expected to substitute for the psychologist or psychiatrist. He should, nonetheless, be able to recognize when such services are needed and be skillful in communicating need to parents. The purpose of the visiting teacher is defeated when teachers consider his appointment to be the panacea for all cases of deviation from set patterns of pupil conduct and behavior. The principal must see to it that his faculty is educated in what the visiting teacher can and cannot do for them.

Special Teaching Personnel

Some large school systems employ personnel whose function it is to engage in supplementary teaching. They are neither supervisory nor regularly assigned teaching personnel. Sometimes, one person is assigned to circulate among several schools; sometimes, to serve only one large elementary school. For example, a special music teacher may serve three schools, spreading his services among them, or may serve one school, teaching at all grade levels. Music, art, and physical education are the fields most commonly represented but, increasingly, speech therapists, teachers of retarded and gifted children, reading specialists, and foreign language teachers are being added.

The advisability of using special teaching personnel is a major issue in elementary education. Those in favor support one or more of the following arguments:

²⁵ Virginia Quattlebaum, "The Visiting Teacher's Role in Guidance," *Educational Leadership*, 10:342-346 (March), 1953.

1. The limited background of many elementary teachers causes them to be inadequate and insecure in some fields that require special skills and understandings.

2. It is beneficial for children to be exposed to teachers who possess exceptional abilities and enthusiasm for a field of study.

3. Certain special problems and handicaps of children are of such nature that only intensive, long-term attack upon them will make possible any profit from normal school activities.

4. Modern developments in education have produced certain insights and new activities that call for a kind of specialization not included in the teacher's otherwise adequate preparation. Modern language teaching would be a case in point.

The extreme position occasionally held to on the basis of the above is that of departmentalization, at least in the upper grades of the elementary school.

The arguments sometimes used in opposition to plans of employing special teaching personnel include the following:

1. Children of elementary school age need the security and order that come from close and continuous association with one teacher, at least for a full school year.

2. The approach to learning must be "holistic." This means, in part, that children should study related aspects of a problem at a given time, rather than only segmented aspects of it.

3. To conduct his class meaningfully, the teacher must see the children in all of their activities conducted under the school auspices.

4. Provision of special teachers in some areas is the thin edge of the wedge to complete departmentalization of the elementary school.

5. Increased awareness of the depth and breadth of the elementary school teacher's responsibility is giving a new vitality to teaching as a profession and a new concept of preparation programs needed.

The experience of the authors points clearly to the fact that most elementary school teachers prefer working with a single class throughout the day. This experience is corroborated by decreasing departmentalization in school organization during recent years.²⁶ It is readily apparent that responsibility of a single teacher for a single group does not exclude the inclusion of co-workers. The regular teacher is *responsible* for determining with children the direction of the learning process. Together, they work out the problems to be studied and the schedule to be followed.

²⁶ Mary Dunn, "Trends in Instructional Organization in City Elementary Schools from 1902 to 1949" (Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation; Pittsburgh, Pa.: University of Pittsburgh, 1951).

in working on them. Together, they examine available resources. Together, they see the possibilities of using Miss Thompson "who can show you how to make men with pipe cleaners, and bells with the tops of cans" in connection with the next social studies unit. "And Mr. Anderson knows all about lacrosse as the Indians used to play it and can teach us the rules of the game." Then, together, the children and regular teacher work out with these special persons a schedule of their services. This constitutes legitimate use of special teaching personnel, retaining the self-contained unit in its very best sense.

The problem of special personnel for handicapped children is somewhat different in character. In recognition of the fact that children with speech and hearing defects, for example, cannot profit sufficiently from regular teaching, special teachers frequently are provided. They serve the threefold function of screening all children for the identification of those having defects, of assisting teachers with related problems, and of teaching groups of handicapped children. Most of the time, the child remains with his group. For short periods each week, he is taken out of the group for remedial work. Again and again, children who might suffer throughout life from their handicaps are able, after only months of such attention, to assume their normal and rightful places with their peers.²⁷

The principal must strive to create a bond of mutual understanding between classroom and special teacher. The classroom teacher must be helped to see the assistance he may and may not expect to receive. The special teacher must be helped to see that his work is as important but no more important than that of the regular teacher. Going from school to school on special assignment sometimes gives one an unrealistic perspective and an inflated sense of self-importance. Nothing could be worse for the ultimate success of the program. A principal with insight can do much to re-establish a lost perspective. A simple procedure such as requiring all special personnel to check by the office when coming and going can do much not only to emphasize individual school autonomy but also to provide for an interchange of information and ideas.

Library Services

At any level, the library is central to the learning-teaching process.²⁸ New elementary school buildings more and more emphasize large, well-lighted libraries, with browsing corners, display tables, and with books

²⁷ For an annotated bibliography on the education of exceptional children, see Christine P. Ingram and William C. Kvaraceus, "Selected References from the Literature of Exceptional Children," *Elementary School Journal*, 53:462-476 (April), 1953; and 55:467-480 (April), 1955. Revised periodically.

²⁸ See, "The Elementary School Library," in "Educational News and Editorial Comment," *Elementary School Journal*, 53:427-429 (April), 1953.

readily accessible. But a handsome library is no guarantee of effective and extensive book usage.

Visitation to many of the newest elementary school buildings reveals a startling limitation—books. One positive measure that should be taken is education of the parent associations in the wise expenditure of their funds. Purchase of an expensive intercommunication system (too often housed in the principal's office) when library shelves are bare is an indictment of both parents and teachers. When parent-teacher groups together engage in raising supplementary school funds, together they must explore how to use them. The only real assurance that books will be provided is budgetary appropriation for them. The best efforts of parent groups should be recognized as no more than supplementary.

One of the major issues regarding effective use of library services is whether they should be centralized in a school library or decentralized in individual classrooms. Again, this need not be an either-or question. Individual classrooms should have sets of relatively inexpensive reference works. Through easy access and day-to-day use, recourse to reference books becomes virtually automatic for children. Individual classrooms should have a supply of recreational reading books. These, however, should be rotated. Classrooms need, too, reference materials appropriate to the study of a given unit or topic. Again, such books should be supplied to the room only for the duration of the topic under study.

A central library, staffed even part-time by a teacher-librarian, can bring stimulation to the teaching and learning processes not possible when only self-contained classroom units are available.²⁹ Single sets of expensive reference sets are justified. Record libraries may be built up. Material undreamed of by the teacher is ordered and catalogued by an alert librarian. Recreational reading materials are used more effectively. An orderly system of classifying materials for ready use is developed. Children become accustomed to library procedures and are able to use other libraries successfully.

Misunderstanding once again constitutes the greatest single barrier to effective library usage. Some librarians come to regard themselves as curators, standing guard over books and creating regulations seemingly designed to obstruct book usage. Some teachers do not instruct children in the care of books and the reason for certain library regulations. The principal is a key figure, and he can do much to develop understanding by

1. Including the librarian, even if a part-time assistant, as a regular faculty member in every sense of the word.

²⁹ For a discussion of ideal physical facilities for the central library, see James W. Tyler, "Physical Requirements of the Elementary School Library," *School Executive*, 73:71-72 (September), 1953.

2. Initiating faculty sessions devoted to discussing potential library services and the removal of hindrances to most effective library operation.
3. Arranging sessions for educating children and teachers alike in library usage.
4. Seeing to it that library regulations emerge as mutual agreements among teachers, children, and librarian.
5. Assisting in the development of reasonable schedules when several groups want the same materials at the same time of the year.
6. Conducting an effective public relations program regarding library needs.
7. Maintaining the position of unbiased expeditor in regard to all library-connected activities.

PUPIL-CONDUCTED ACTIVITIES

A separate section is devoted here to a group of pupil activities which do not enjoy universal acceptance in the curriculum, but which have unique potential for the attainment of certain commonly accepted educational goals. Some schools regard these activities as extraneous to the real concerns of elementary education and permit children to indulge in them as an unavoidable element of their growing up in schools. Others regard them as fashionable and include them as a kind of necessary window dressing, behind which more formal education now can be conducted with a clear conscience. Still other elementary schools make no differentiation between activities sometimes referred to as "extracurricular" and those considered "curricular." All activities conducted and authorized by these schools are regarded as curricular and, therefore, to be approached in the light of a common set of principles regarding learning and the learner.

Four common types to be discussed here are as follows: (1) recreational group activities such as picnics and parties, the latter frequently having some seasonal motivation; (2) performance group activities such as assembly programs or class plays and concerts; (3) communications group activities such as class or school publications and announcements presented over a public address system; and (4) government group activities such as those enacted by school or class councils.

Recreational Activities

There is a serious misconception abroad regarding the educational merit of recreational activities, such as picnics and parties. We are inclined to think, often, along very narrow lines of educational justification.

As a result, we find ourselves going to great and ridiculous lengths to justify a party on the grounds that much arithmetic is learned through the expenditure of funds, distribution of food, and so forth. An examination of the educational goals of virtually any present-day elementary school reveals objectives in addition to those of computation and communication. These goals, too, if they are to be maintained must be fulfilled. The *best* activity is not necessarily the one that fulfills *most* goals; it may be the one that *best* fulfills a single goal. It follows, then, that school activities must be justified on the basis neither of simultaneous attainment of all objectives nor attainment of a single, traditional objective, but rather on the fulfillment of the particular objective or objectives for which it is appropriate.

One set of leadership problems grows out of the principal's responsibility to teachers in regard to school policies governing parties and picnics. At one extreme, there is the teacher who uses each child's birthday, each holiday, and each classroom accomplishment as an excuse for a party. At the other, there are those teachers who regard any digression from a daily routine of reading, writing, and arithmetic as being in violation of the school's responsibility to its patrons. To party or not to party can be, childish as it may seem, a source of conflict and faculty disintegration.

The principal does well to get the matter out into the open, not as a problem or issue, but as a question requiring discussion and common agreement. Discussion should bring out the following points:

1. A good elementary school is a unit made up of related parts, not separate cells.
2. A good elementary school has a common set of goals, agreed upon by all who accept membership in the faculty.
3. There are many possible learning activities appropriate to the various parts, but each activity must be justified on the basis of learning.
4. There must be sufficient consistency from level to level or from teacher to teacher to assure continuous, sequential pupil growth.
5. Each teacher is the judge of the value of a given activity for his particular group of children.
6. The absence or presence of a particular activity, such as parties and picnics, is no indication of adequacy of goal attainment.
7. Children will not suffer any dire, psychological consequences because of an absence of parties. School life can be rich, pleasant, and meaningful without them.
8. Children's acceptance of a teacher is based on much more fundamental considerations than his encouragement of parties and picnics.

Excessive party-throwing will not change children's regard for a teacher who, basically, does not like people.

9. The principal has a responsibility for safeguarding continuity of program and teacher morale for the ultimate good of all.

Another set of leadership problems arises out of parent concern for these recreational-type activities. There are parents who criticize the school for "too much playing and too little learning" and parents who try to impose additional activities upon the school. An effective school program of home communication does much to relieve a principal from the pressures of both types. When parents participate in determining what their school is for, they are less likely to criticize what it does. The occasional critic still must be dealt with, however. At least the following approaches present themselves:

1. Enumerate all school goals, pointing out the inclusion of those representative of this particular parent's interest.
2. Explain the appropriateness of certain activities for certain goals.
3. Show the relation between real-life experience and formal learnings.
4. Recognize the soundness of any thoughtful criticism, and point out what is being done to protect parent, child, and teacher alike.

Performance—Demonstration Activities

Many of the general considerations involved in plays, concerts, and assembly programs have been discussed above. A few specifics call for elaboration here. First, these activities should arise naturally out of day-to-day learning and teaching. The seventh-grade class has been reading Dickens' *A Christmas Carol*. Somebody suggests, "Why don't we pick parts and act it out?" The idea is enthusiastically received and so the reading is play-acted, and that's all there is to it. Or, with another group, it is suggested that they learn parts and enact the story for their parents. The idea grows with discussing it, until there are costume committees, refreshment committees, advertising committees, and so on. Children meet in one another's homes after school to rehearse. Perhaps other classes get wind of what is going on, and several pool their resources in staging a Christmas concert for the entire student body. But, whether it be an informal reading of lines in the classroom or a school-wide program, one basic concern must stand ever at the forefront: *The activity is justified on the basis of its value for the children involved, not on its virtues as a dramatic episode.*

The principal's attitude goes a long way in establishing appropriate emphases throughout the school. If his position calls for demonstrating to

the public and to other schools that his school stands for quality of performance, it is likely that activities that should be pupil-centered will become teacher-centered. Teachers will strive for polished, carefully rehearsed performances in which only the most capable children perform. The days preceding the performance, and the performance itself, will be fraught with tension and frayed nerves. Children cannot possibly benefit under such conditions.

But if the principal recognizes that activities involving children must grow freely and naturally out of the group, true creativity is likely to flourish. Creativity, by its very nature, perishes under regimentation. In an environment free from pressure to perform and to conform, where the child and not the play is the thing, true feeling for creative media emerges and talent is fostered. In such an environment grows not only the rare genius but also the creative, appreciative, ordinary human being.

The assembly program can be the proving ground or the burial site for children's initiative, spontaneity, leadership, and creativity. Assembly programs for children should be planned with and by children. Under teacher guidance, children should plan; children should determine the rules and regulations to govern their behavior; children should invite speakers and guests; children should see to it that arbitrary criteria, such as age, do not limit participation; and children should determine and apply the criteria for program selection.

Communications Activities

School and class publications are an educational activity, justified only on educational grounds. When teacher-sponsors find themselves exhorting children in regard to their responsibilities to an impending deadline, it is time to examine the enterprise seriously, perhaps even to consider its abandonment. Was real responsibility actually extended to children, or were the pupils really tied to directives of the teacher-sponsor? Did the teacher set himself up as censor and rewrite editor, so that pupils ultimately came to fear submitting anything for his approval? Were children permitted to take the consequences of their failure to meet deadlines, or did the teacher-sponsor write all night to assure publication on the following day? If the answers to questions of this kind are in the affirmative, then blame belongs with the teachers, not the children.

The principal in the elementary school must lead his faculty to see that

1. School and class publications are a natural outgrowth of children having something they want to say to others.
2. Having something to say is much more significant than needing to

find something to say. For this reason, duplicated class sheets prepared whenever a group has something worth sharing with another group may be preferable to a formalized school paper.

3. Children should be encouraged to express themselves in their own way. They must be guided to see those errors in usage that lie within their present level of practice and understanding, but the style and intent of their material must be left intact.

4. Children should be helped to see relationships between privileges and responsibilities. When children accept election to the paper staff, they assume the responsibilities that go with the honor.

5. Children must be protected from commitments they cannot meet. Such commitments include promises to businessmen from whom advertisements are solicited.

6. The aspirations for the enterprise must be tempered by adult insight into the limits of young children's interest spans.

7. All levels and groups of the student body must be represented in any all-school publication.

8. Children should be helped to see that what one reports is to be dictated not by rule of censorship but by a personal commitment to decency and integrity—by responsible journalism, in other words.

Government Activities

Whereas school councils or advisory bodies are common to American high schools, they are a comparatively rare phenomenon in elementary education. Probably the most logical explanation for this difference is rather widespread acceptance of the notion that elementary school children are too young for this kind of responsibility.³⁰ Fifth-grade children are too young to conduct tenth-grade affairs, certainly, but they are not too young to participate in important affairs that reflect fifth-grade concerns and interests. Even first-graders can conduct efficient self-government, provided the scope of their deliberation is carefully restricted to those matters into which they have insight.

Probably, principals can be helped most at this point by looking directly at questions school administrators frequently raise about student self-government.

WHAT INITIATIVE SHOULD BE TAKEN BY A FACULTY IN ESTABLISHING A STUDENT COUNCIL WHERE NONE PREVIOUSLY EXISTED? As in other educational matters, readiness must precede action. But children cannot be

³⁰ For a discussion of a point of view based on philosophical and psychological reasons for student self-government in the elementary school, see Thorsten R. Carlson and Edwena M. Moore, "A School Council Aids Learning," *Educational Leadership*, 9:438-443 (April), 1952.

expected to indicate spontaneous readiness for something previously unknown to them. It follows, then, that when a faculty has reached consensus regarding the potential values of pupil participation in school policy, readiness must be stimulated throughout the school. This might be done by establishing classroom councils to conduct certain affairs agreed upon by the members of that class.³¹ Readiness can be encouraged also through studying self-government activities of other schools and by discussing the potential values of such activities. Pupil self-government must never be imposed from above by teachers.

WHAT PUPILS OR GROUPS OF PUPILS SHOULD PARTICIPATE? The answer here is, all those to be governed. Any council formulated from upper-grade classes is not a school council and therefore must be restricted in its scope. The problems dealt with must be the problems only of the group or groups involved. In time, then, an entire student body may be involved. If first graders' problems are to be discussed, then first-grade representation must be granted.

HOW MUCH SCOPE IN PROBLEM SELECTION SHOULD BE ALLOWED A STUDENT GOVERNING GROUP? The answer here is a relative one and will vary widely from school to school. Basic, nevertheless, is the leeway a faculty is willing to give and its own wisdom in designating this leeway. It is better to restrict rigorously the scope of a council's deliberations than to veto decisions once made. A faculty that says, "Oh well, let them discuss it; we can always veto what they decide," is not yet ready to assume its responsibility for a school council. Likewise, a faculty which by direct statement or by implication indicates that those routine problems too troublesome for its own consideration should be turned over to the school council is not ready for the responsibility entailed. Usually, the newly formed council is able, under guidance, to use good judgment in determining its own scope of operations.

SHOULD STUDENT GOVERNING GROUPS EXERCISE A DISCIPLINARY ROLE IN RELATION TO PEERS? School people bring grief upon themselves when they encourage children to assume this kind of responsibility. Normal children do not enjoy being on either the giving or the receiving end in regard to peer group discipline. Group self-discipline is one thing. Sitting in formal judgment is quite another. Teachers are accepted by children and parents alike as having responsibility for exercising certain controls. Any major shifting of this responsibility to children is regarded frequently as a shirking of responsibility. School people are well advised to guide student governing groups toward advisory and away from judicial functions.

³¹ See H. G. Frantz, "My Seventh Grade Governed Themselves," *School Activities*, 25:141-142 (December), 1953.

WHAT ARE APPROPRIATE PROBLEMS FOR SCHOOL COUNCILS? Generally, the closer the problem is related to the central concerns and basic welfare of the pupils, the more appropriate it is for their deliberation. Pupil safety, desirable conduct at pupil functions, school spirit, use of school plant and equipment, clarification of school regulations governing pupil privileges and responsibilities, assembly programs, and school parties and carnivals are a few of the items that frequently fall into this category. It is helpful in many cases for the school council, with its advisor, to work out a framework for determining appropriate problems.

WHAT LIMITATIONS SHOULD BE PLACED UPON A BUDGET FOR THE STUDENT COUNCIL? Ordinarily, there will be no need for student government groups in the elementary school to have a budget, and fund-raising proposals must be entered into with caution. Money may be allocated, on occasion, from a general school budget for specific school council activities, but a central school record of such disbursements must be maintained. On the other hand, when permission to carry on a fund-raising activity for a specific student purpose is granted, the school faculty must be prepared to back such commitment fully. There have been cases where children have engaged diligently in a fund-raising activity only to lose their profits to a central fund. Every effort should be made to separate financial matters from the activities of student self-governing groups.

Fulfillment of educational purpose constitutes the only justifiable reason for the existence of school councils and advisory groups. They do not exist to carry out certain tasks considered irksome by school personnel. They do exist to give children valuable experience in the rudiments of democratic self-government.³²

GUIDING PRINCIPLES: A SUMMARY OF KEY IDEAS

1. The elementary school principal takes leadership in assuring continual faculty study of those school services to be provided. Decisions must take into account both available funds and priority among needs.
2. He must take leadership in working with parents, teachers, and pupils in planning and guiding those "pupil-centered" activities having unique potential for developing pupil responsibility and initiative.
3. His leadership is significant in assuring careful observation of school children for the identification of significant health symptoms, notification of parents regarding these symptoms, cooperation with dental and medical authorities in children's examinations, and provision for emergency action in the case of accident and sudden illness.

³² For an analysis of children's reactions to the success of elementary school student councils in this regard, see John F. O'Toole, Jr., "A Study of the Elementary-School Student Council," *Elementary School Journal*, 50:259-267 (January), 1950.

4. The principal must engage his faculty constantly in improving basic school services and manage the routine involved so that he is free for major leadership activities.

5. He must explore with teachers, supervisors, visiting teachers, and all part-time workers the potentiality of special personnel for instructional improvement.

6. He must exert leadership with his faculty in defining the function of recreational and governmental pupil activities in the total curriculum.

7. The principal must lead in examining constantly the effect of pupil-conducted activities upon the development and welfare of all children. Pupil activities take on their full value and meaning only when planned for, with, and by children.

8. The elementary school principal has key responsibility for seeing that pupil welfare always is at the center of the many special services and activities carried on in the name of education.

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDY

1. The Morning View School is located in a middle-class section of a large city. The parents are hard-working citizens who take pride in their independence. A few families represented in the school have a particularly difficult time providing adequate food and clothing for their children, but remain stubbornly quiet about their difficulties. Their children do not bring lunch money and carry pitifully inadequate snacks for their noon meal. The principal has some leeway in his lunchroom budget and would like to provide some assistance to the children of these families. At the same time, he is afraid of hurting their pride. How would you handle the problem?

2. The new school superintendent in the Salento community called his principals together to announce a new plan of cafeteria management. "From now on," he announced, "you won't have to worry about details of operating your lunchrooms. I've appointed a highly trained lunchroom coordinator. She will have responsibility for the operation of all cafeterias through their present managers. She is responsible directly to me. Cafeteria meals will be served at a standard rate for all schools, uniform weekly menus will be set up, and all purchases will be centralized. You will have no further responsibility for the operation of your lunchroom or its staff." What are your reactions to the new plan? What action might be taken?

3. You are the new principal of the Beacon School, one of three elementary schools in the Marston County System. Three special teachers serve the system—art, music, and physical education. These three persons have been in the system longer than any of the principals. They have developed a routine for distributing their services among the schools. Each fall they get together and work out a visitation schedule that assures no two of them in the same school at the same time.

They go from classroom to classroom, teaching the children while the regular teachers rest. The teachers appear fairly satisfied with the system, but you feel that it has many unsatisfactory aspects. How would you proceed in bringing about the changes you feel are desirable? What changes would you hope to effect?

4. Tom Sycamore is in his second year of teaching in the elementary school where you are principal. He is keenly interested in developing pupil leadership in his sixth grade and has set up a class council. One day he comes to you with a letter from an irate parent. The essence of it is that the parent objects violently to the court held by the class each Friday afternoon. Children who misbehave during the week are tried and sentenced by a pupil "judge." Several boys, fed up with the judge's harsh sentences, waylaid him on the way home, taking the law into their own hands. The judge's father now wants to know what kind of nonsense is going on in the class room. Tom Sycamore is a very unhappy young man. The parent is threatening an investigation of the whole affair. Obviously, things are far from harmonious in the class council. What is your responsibility in the matter? How do you proceed from here?

5. Your third-grade teacher, who is advisor to the school paper, comes to you in desperation. Each month, the paper misses its due date. The advisor has tried coaxing, persuading, even threatening, but things are going from bad to worse. The representatives on the staff, one pupil elected from each class, just don't seem concerned. The material they submit is incomplete and poorly written. The last few days before publication are just a headache for the teacher. What advice would you give her?

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

- Chamberlain, Leo M., and Leslie W. Kindred, *The Teacher and School Organization*. 2nd ed.; Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949.
- Dougherty, James H., Frank H. Gorman, and Claude A. Phillips, *Elementary School Organization and Management*. Rev. ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950.
- Elsbree, Willard S., and Harold J. McNally, *Elementary School Administration and Supervision*. New York: American Book Company, 1951.
- Hagman, Harlan L., *The Administration of American Public Schools*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951.
- Kirkendall, L. A., and Franklin R. Zeran, *Student Councils in Action*. New York: Chartwell House, Inc., 1953.
- Kyte, George C., *The Principal at Work*. Rev. ed.; Boston: Ginn & Co., 1952.
- Lane, Robert Hill, *The Principal in the Modern Elementary School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1944.
- Otto, Henry J., *Elementary School Organization and Administration*. 3rd ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954.
- Reavis, William C., Paul R. Pierce, Edward H. Stullken, and Bertrand L. Smith, *Administering the Elementary School*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953.

- Reeder, Edwin H., *Supervision in the Elementary School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1953.
- Reeder, Ward G., *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration*. 3rd ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951.
- Shane, Harold G., and Wilbur A. Yauch, *Creative School Administration*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1954.
- Spears, Harold, *Improving the Supervision of Instruction*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953.
- Thompson, N. Z., *Vitalized Assemblies*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1952.
- , *Your School Clubs*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1953.
- Yeager, William A., *Administration and the Pupil*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949.

In the past the elementary school principal too often has prided himself on mechanical efficiency in the operation of his school. Smoothness in operation often has been made an important objective in itself, with the result that children, classroom teachers, and parents have feared that they might interrupt the smooth administration of the school.

The efficient operation of an elementary school necessarily involves attention to many details, and for many years to come principals will not have adequate assistance to take care of them. They will remain a part of the principal's responsibility and continue to require his personal attention. Careful planning and organization of work, however, will prevent his enslavement to details. As a matter of fact, important human relationships often are involved in what seems to be a minor detail. The failure to answer a parent's letter, for example, or to maintain building sanitation may have serious repercussions.

In the future the elementary school principal with imagination and foresight will not plan alone. He will work closely with his faculty, and he will utilize other available resources in planning for children. In fact, if he is to assume his responsibility for leadership, the cooperation of faculty, students, and community must be secured.

—Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow* (Twenty-seventh Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948).
p. 11.

Section D

LEADERSHIP IN ADMINISTRATION
OF THE SCHOOL IS AN
IMPORTANT RESPONSIBILITY

A considerable portion of any elementary school principal's time and energy has to be directed to responsibilities which are administrative in nature. The manner in which he carries out administrative duties is determined in part by his own conception of his role as an elementary school leader—his conception of the job he has been employed to perform. The way he resolves administrative problems is also determined in part by his conception of himself—by the way he feels about himself as a person. Administrative tasks can be looked upon as dull, routine, demanding activities; or they can be viewed as important, even though time-consuming, contributions which enable teachers to provide better classroom instruction.

Situational factors are of particular importance as the principal attempts to provide effective administrative leadership. Procedures which are sound and effective in one school are not necessarily effective in another—even in the same community. Practices which are effective for one principal may not work for another. Activities which produce desirable results with one staff may result in apathy or antagonism with another. Routines which one superintendent encourages may be condemned or frowned upon by another. Procedures which one parent group supports enthusiastically may produce inflammatory criticism from another.

Principles of good administrative leadership, nevertheless, are identifiable, and practices found to be effective in most situations are known. Chapters 10 and 11 present information designed to help practicing elementary school principals and those aspiring to be elementary school principals to perform more effectively the administrative jobs that must be performed if a smoothly functioning unit is to be created.

Leadership in Administration of the School

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL is a member of the administrative staff of the school system. As a representative of the central administrative authority, he may be expected to

Interpret policies of the board of education and regulations of the central administrative staff to teachers and parents.

Convey to the superintendent and other officials of the administration the concerns, needs, and aspirations of teachers, parents, and children.

Share in selecting the school staff.

Furnish promptly and accurately needed records and reports.

Account for all money collected and spent.

Plan for the effective storage, distribution, and use of school supplies.

Establish procedures for protecting and maintaining the school plant and its equipment.

Develop and maintain an efficient office.

The extent to which an elementary school principal in a particular community will participate in all of these administrative functions cannot be predicted. Practices vary depending to a considerable extent upon the conception held by the superintendent of schools concerning the principal's functions and upon the principal's own conception of his role in the school system. As can be seen in Table 1, these opinions of superintendents and principals concerning the role of the principal may vary considerably. In the study conducted by the Department of Elementary School Principals,¹ two-thirds of the superintendents indicated that they

¹ Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow* (Twenty-seventh Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948), pp. 64-70.

recognized the principal as "the responsible head of a school unit with authority to plan and carry out, thru democratic processes, the highest possible type of program for the community." Less than half of the principals believed that their role could be described in such terms. Only about a third of the superintendents indicated that principals were "primarily concerned with carrying out the plans and policies of the central office," while simultaneously planning for the school unit. But almost half of the principals had that conception of their position.

Such differing interpretations of the principal's role may result from attaching different meanings to the words used on the questionnaire, or they may indicate that many principals believe that too much control is vested in the central administration.

Table 1

HOW PRINCIPALS AND SUPERINTENDENTS DESCRIBE THE ROLE OF
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

Definition	Responses of Principals	Responses of Superintendents
1. The principal is clearly recognized as the responsible head of a school unit with authority to plan and carry out, thru democratic processes, the highest possible type of program for the community. He is encouraged to participate in planning and policy-making for the entire school system. His position is magnified.	44%	66%
2. The principal is given some recognition for his professional knowledge and encouraged to function efficiently. While primarily concerned with carrying out the plans and policies of the central office and school board, the principal is expected to plan for his school unit.	49%	32%
3. The principal is expected to carry out orders, file reports promptly, report on conditions, make only minor decisions, make no unique plans for the school community, and have no part in making school system policies. The position gets no special recognition.	7%	2%

Source: Adapted from Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow* (Twenty-seventh Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948), pp. 69-70.

Whatever the reasons for the differing conceptions of the role of the principal, it is apparent that most superintendents say they want the

principal to be a real leader of the school unit. It is possible, therefore, that principals may not be accepting leadership opportunities that exist.

To determine, partially, the extent to which principals shared in administrative decisions, the Department of Elementary School Principals asked supervising and teaching principals to indicate their authority in relation to specific tasks. Responses in four areas of administrative activity are given in Table 2. It is evident that only about half of the elementary school principals in the study participated in the preparation of the district's budget. Most principals had a share in the determination of school system policies—either through participation on committees to suggest policies or through individual conferences with central administrative personnel. About a third of the principals participated in the selection of teachers, and about three-fourths of them played an active role in the selection of instructional supplies for the individual school.

Supervising principals polled in the same study indicated that they spend 29 per cent of their working time on administrative duties and 15.1 per cent on clerical work. Teaching principals indicated that they devote 10.4 per cent of their time to administrative duties and 10.7 per cent to clerical work.² It appears that supervising principals are spending a little less than half of their time on administrative concerns, and that

Table 2

THE ROLE OF SUPERVISING AND TEACHING PRINCIPALS
AND THEIR AUTHORITY AS REPORTED BY PRINCIPALS
IN RELATION TO SPECIFIC TASKS

<i>Task or Duty</i>	<i>Supervising Principals</i>	<i>Teaching Principals</i>
1. BUDGET PREPARATION		
(a) Principal has no voice in the matter.	52%	60%
(b) Principal makes recommendations, subject to extensive revision by central office.	29%	26%
(c) Principal prepares budget, which, with minor revisions, is usually approved by the central office.	19%	14%
2. SCHOOL SYSTEM POLICIES		
(a) Principals are never consulted.	6%	12%
(b) Principals individually may be consulted.	26%	40%
(c) Principals are frequently appointed along with classroom teachers and others to serve on general school system committees which make recommendations to the superintendent of schools.	68%	48%

² *Ibid.*, p. 87.

Table 2 (continued)

Task or Duty	Supervising Principals	Teaching Principals
3. SELECTION OF TEACHERS		
(a) Principal has no voice in the matter.	20%	32%
(b) Superintendent (or staff) and principal cooperate in some assignments.	46%	38%
(c) Superintendent (or staff) and principal cooperate in all assignments.	27%	23%
(d) Teachers are assigned only upon principal's recommendation.	7%	7%
4. SELECTION OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPPLIES		
(a) Principal limited to standard materials furnished to all schools.	30%	17%
(b) Principal orders beyond the standard list, subject to superintendent's approval.	29%	28%
(c) Principal (with aid of teachers) may order as seems best, subject to budget allotment made to his school building.	41%	55%

Source: Adapted from Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, pp. 72-73.

teaching principals do little else in the hours available after the teaching assignment is fulfilled.

Very few principals, according to the nation-wide study, are happy about the amount of time they are spending on administrative responsibilities. Most of them indicated that, ideally, more time should be given to the improvement of instruction in the school and to problems of pupil personnel.³ The authors have also found that principals are concerned about ways of streamlining administrative and clerical duties, so that additional effort can be directed to the improvement of the instructional program. These concerns are voiced in statements and questions such as the following:

"My phone rings and rings and rings. Sometimes I'd like to rip it off the wall."

"I spend two or three hours a day filling out forms in connection with the lunchroom. I don't really believe the surplus commodity program is worth it."

"How can I find more time to work with teachers? I have no clerical help and the records have to be kept."

³ *Ibid.*, p. 90.

"I know it's not right to spend all my time doing things which any clerk could do as well, but there's no one else to do the work and it has to be done. What can I do?"

"If we had good custodial help, I wouldn't have to be a janitor. Perhaps then, I could try to be a principal."

There is little doubt that wasteful procedures are currently supported in most school districts. Persons who are paid salaries commensurate with responsibility for leadership are actually, in numerous cases, little more than overpaid clerks. Schools muddle along with meager office equipment, sometimes nothing more than a telephone, filing case, and typewriter—and sometimes not even these! No other American business, spending one-tenth the money which is allocated to schools each year, plods along without modern dictation equipment, efficiently trained and well-paid secretaries, records designed specifically for the task, and equipment to make record-keeping simple and accurate. Unfortunately, although there is increasing recognition of the need for clerical services and modern equipment in elementary schools, for the foreseeable future many principals will be faced with the necessity of working with antiquated equipment and devising ways to improve services simultaneously.

There is little doubt that a principal new to a position will need to determine what is expected of him administratively, because the responsibilities to be assumed by the principal vary so greatly from system to system. Although the new principal may find that many decisions affecting his work and functioning are made in his absence, there is good evidence that administrative rules and regulations are increasingly arrived at through cooperative processes.

The manner in which the principal performs necessary administrative tasks will determine to a considerable extent the working climate or emotional atmosphere in the elementary school. Some principals create rigid routines and regulations, which harmfully influence the quality of teaching and learning. Other principals are so lax in establishing orderly procedures that it is difficult for teachers to use their time effectively. Good elementary school principals support and utilize principles of democratic leadership as they attempt to establish effective administrative procedures.

INTERPRETING BOARD AND ADMINISTRATIVE POLICIES TO STAFF, PARENTS, AND PUPILS

One of the important administrative responsibilities of the elementary school principal is interpreting policies of the board of education and

regulations established by the administration to all those affected. Since in the great majority of American communities the board of education is elected by the people, it is assumed that policies established by the board represent the wishes of the community. In many situations, however, the board of education tends to function almost in isolation from the parents, schools, and children. If the wishes of parents are to be considered, effective channels of communication must be established.⁴ The principal occupies a key position in whatever procedure is created to facilitate communication. He works more closely with parents than any other administrative official and therefore is in a position to influence their attitudes concerning the school system either positively or negatively.

If the principal is to serve as an effective interpreter of board policy, it is immediately apparent that he must be informed. In most American communities the meetings of the board of education are open to the public, as they should be. There still are many localities, however, where the board of education holds most of its meetings in closed or executive session. In general, the authors believe that the elementary school principal should occasionally attend the board meetings as a listener and a resource person, particularly if encouraged to do so by the superintendent. In most instances he will function only as an interested listener who has responsibilities for interpreting, at a later time, the action which is taken. Listening to the discussion of problems in board meetings provides an understanding of the pros and cons and enables the principal to explain why it seemed advisable for the board to act as it did. When thus informed, the principal can help interpret board policies to teachers and parents.

Similarly, the elementary school principal needs to be a participant in the development of administrative policies. Many superintendents have established administrative councils, which include teacher representatives as well as principals and supervisors, to serve as advisory groups on policy matters. When decisions are made by such groups and the principal is a participant, he is informed so that he can explain the reasons for action. As a representative of his staff, he can help the council develop regulations which are sufficiently flexible to encourage distinctive and effective school programs.

As an interpreter, the elementary school principal should make effective use of existing avenues of communication. The local unit of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers is an important group to use.

⁴ For suggestions, see National Society for the Study of Education, *Citizen Cooperation for Better Public Schools* (Fifty-third Yearbook; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954), Part I.

The executive board of the association should discuss policy matters of particular import. Some of these will need to be presented to the total association either for information or for discussion and possible action. The P.T.A. also should identify areas in which policies or administrative regulations are needed.

The faculty meeting and publications for the faculty are utilized by good principals to keep teachers and other members of the school staff informed about policies and regulations. Many school systems have developed effective handbooks to present existing regulations in some detail, so that a ready reference is available for each employed person. Some elementary school principals have produced similar materials for the faculty of the individual school unit. Naturally the need for written policies and school-wide agreements tends to increase as the size of the school system increases. In most schools with a recognized principal, some such record of agreed-upon regulations or traditions will usually be found helpful, especially to new members of the staff. Teaching principals, particularly, will need to routinize as many activities as possible in order to prevent unnecessary interruption of classroom activities.

The principles of democratic leadership, enumerated in Chapter 1, apply in this area of the principal's functioning as in all other aspects of his responsibility. Probably the principal has no more important task than that of developing sound human relations, so that communication is possible. When tempers flare, when distrust pervades a group, when fear of one's self and others abounds, true communication is difficult if not impossible. If the principal is to serve as an effective interpreter of board and administrative policies, it is absolutely essential that sound relations be established, so that communication can take place even when differences of opinion are marked.

One of the most significant responsibilities of the principal as an interpreter of board and administrative policies is that of stimulating others to catch a vision of what might be. No elementary school is perfect, yet there are many parents and teachers who are seemingly satisfied with the status quo. Chaos will result if too much dissatisfaction regarding the school is fostered without any apparent effort to bring about desirable changes. On the other hand, if some dissatisfaction is not engendered, if something better is not envisioned, there is almost no possibility of improving the education provided. The principal needs to serve not as a person who stifles dissent and disagreement, but as one who helps individuals and groups recognize the value and need for divergent opinions. Skillful leadership is required.

How the principal works in any particular school system to improve the understanding of teachers, parents, and children in regard to board

policies and administrative regulations will depend to some extent upon the setting. Principals may find that some of the following suggestions will be helpful.

1. Become acquainted with policies established by the board of education. Attend board meetings occasionally, if encouraged to do so.
2. Work actively with the parent groups that are organized in connection with the school. Help them become active discussion units which consider real problems. Provide suggestions and leadership so that the groups may develop skill in functioning. Don't be disappointed in the early results of such organizations.
3. Suggest to the administrative council, if one exists, that a handbook for teachers might be needed. Such a publication should be carefully developed, so that specific regulations will be understood. The handbook should emphasize the need for flexibility and creativity if good education is to be provided.
4. Explain to the professional staff new administrative regulations which affect their welfare or work. Such information usually should be presented in writing. If there is danger of misinterpretation or if the regulation is controversial, be sure to provide, simultaneously, an opportunity for discussion.
5. Work for the establishment of effective channels of communication which are known to all concerned so that the ideas of parents are gained, decisions on policy are shared by teachers, concerns of principals are expressed, and board policies or administrative decisions are quickly communicated to those affected.

IDENTIFYING THE ASPIRATIONS OF TEACHERS, PARENTS, AND CHILDREN

The administrative responsibility for interpreting regulations to the staff and parents is paralleled by the need for channeling information concerning the needs of children, aspirations of parents for their children, and problems of teachers to the central administrative staff and the board of education. Problems exist, of course, in determining the true aspirations of the majority of the people. Small but vocal pressure groups sometimes exert much more influence upon administrative officials than their numbers justify.⁵ It is important, therefore, that means be established whereby participation will be made general, and opportunity for compromise and consensus will be provided. Citizens' committees have

⁵ See Archibald B. Shaw, "Citizens Organize to Meet Attacks on the Schools," *Educational Leadership*, 9:300-305 (February), 1952; and Ralph O'Leary, "The Minute Women," *Houston Post*, October 11 and 28, 1953.

been found to be effective means in many communities of organizing for school improvement. Suggested principles for developing effective cooperation have been identified by Morphet as follows:

1. The basic policies relating to public education should be decided by the people.

2. The people should delegate to their legally selected representatives the responsibility for final decision on specific policies relating to public education.

3. The board of education should keep the citizens informed regarding educational needs and enlist their aid in the development of a satisfactory public school program.

4. Both educators and lay citizens have responsibilities to meet and contributions to make to the development of the public school program.

5. The development of a sound educational program requires the best cooperative efforts of both educators and lay citizens.

6. Educators and other citizens should share the responsibility for stimulating, encouraging, and facilitating cooperation on projects relating to the schools.

7. All cooperative efforts to improve the educational program should utilize the basic principles of human relations in a democracy.

(a) There should be respect for the individual, yet consistent recognition of the fact that the common good should be considered paramount.

(b) The talents and abilities of all persons who can make a contribution to the development of a sound program should be utilized.

(c) The thinking and conclusions of two or more genuinely interested persons with a good understanding of the problems and issues are likely to be more reliable than the conclusions of any one individual.

(d) The procedures used in solving a problem may be as important as the solution and should contribute to the growth and understanding of the participants.

8. The major purpose of every individual and group should be to help improve public education.

9. Informal cooperative effort should be recognized as just as significant and important as the more formal types.

10. Citizen cooperation in improving the work of individual classrooms and schools should be considered fundamental.

11. The kinds of cooperative activity which should be developed are those considered to be most appropriate and meaningful in each situation.

12. Cooperation should always be genuine and bona fide.

13. Insofar as practicable, all cooperative projects should be cooperative from their beginning.

14. The procedure used in a cooperative program should be designed to assure that conclusions will be reached and decisions made on the basis of pertinent evidence and desirable objectives.

15. Insofar as practicable, decisions should be reached on the basis of consensus and agreement.

16. The entire community (local or state) should be kept informed regarding activities and developments relating to citizen cooperation.

17. Leaders who understand and believe in cooperative procedures are essential.

18. Persons involved in cooperative projects should be broadly representative of all points of view in the community or state.

19. Cooperative activities should be so planned as to be beneficial to the individuals and groups involved as well as to the public schools.

20. The possibilities of citizen cooperation should be explored before any other course is followed.

21. New groups or organizations should be established for purposes of citizen cooperation only when it becomes evident that the need cannot be met satisfactorily through existing organizations.

22. The board of education and school officials should give careful consideration to all proposals and recommendations growing out of the cooperative program and should approve those which seem to be for the best interest of the schools.

23. All persons and groups interested in any form of citizen cooperation should continuously seek to improve the procedures and outcomes.

24. The procedures used in cooperative activities should be consistent with fundamental principles but should be designed to meet the needs of the particular situation.⁶

In some communities comprehensive surveys by citizens, with the help and assistance of qualified professional workers, have proved to be effective in determining the wishes of the people. Sumption⁷ and Hand⁸ have identified possible ways of proceeding through the organization of citizens' survey committees and through studies to determine parent opinion. Surveys made by teams from university research bureaus also have attempted to enlist parents and pupils in identifying needs.⁹ All these attempts have one factor in common—a realization that public schools belong to the people and that, although professional educators have responsibilities for leadership, schools must be responsive to the needs which community members recognize.

As he attempts to identify the aspirations of teachers, parents, and children so that information on which to base administrative decisions will be available, the elementary school principal will need to adapt his

⁶ National Society for the Study of Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 242-251.

⁷ Merle R. Sumption, *How to Conduct a Citizens School Survey* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952).

⁸ Harold C. Hand, *What People Think about Their Schools* (Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Company, 1948).

⁹ See, for example, *Public Education in Princeton and Caldwell County* (Lexington, Ky.: Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1949); *A Survey of Public Education in Richmond County, Georgia* (Athens, Ga.: The Bureau of Educational Studies and Field Services, College of Education, University of Georgia, 1950); *Cooperative Study of the Mobile Schools* (University, Ala.: Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, University of Alabama, 1949); and *Citizens Study Their Schools* (Danville, Ill.: Board of Education, 1949).

methods to the community served. In general, procedures such as those which follow will result in desirable attitudes and positive participation in school betterment programs.

1. Make sure that teachers share in decision making at the individual school level and that their morale is kept high. Persons who believe in themselves are relatively confident and secure and are much more likely to respond effectively to criticism.

2. Provide many opportunities for the parents of the children in a single classroom to meet with the teacher to discuss the total day, the methods being used, and the ways that parents can help. As parents and teachers begin to know one another personally and as discussion is directed to the concerns of both, better understanding probably will result. Because some staff members may be reluctant to have questions raised concerning the program, the principal may at first have to provide considerable leadership in such groups.

3. Recognize that, undoubtedly, criticism will be directed toward the school, if parents really have an opportunity to participate freely. Assume that the criticism is given in the proper spirit of helpfulness, and welcome it as a way of bringing about significant improvement. Help all persons to keep comments and criticisms on ideas and activities rather than on personalities. Know that some criticism will result from lack of knowledge about what the school is actually doing.

4. Encourage parents to visit school frequently and for extended periods of time. Plan activities that will involve them in the school program. Some schools have parents serving in the school clinic, providing guidance in the library, helping the children with trays in the cafeteria, reconstructing equipment for rooms and playgrounds, participating in decorating classrooms and halls, and acting as substitute teachers for short periods of time while teachers participate in curriculum improvement activities.

5. Give individuals and groups opportunity to express their opinions. Although this method is frequently time-consuming at the outset, any other procedure is likely to be more time-consuming later on. Nothing is quite so frustrating to an individual interested in better schools than confronting a closed door at the principal's office.

6. Organize an effective school council which has representatives from all classrooms and undertakes action projects of significance to the pupils. Have parent representation on the council, too.

7. Make sure that the staff is organized for effective flow of ideas. If the staff is small, the problem of organization will not be as great as if it comprises twenty or more persons. In large schools some sort of executive council with elected representatives probably should be established.

Noncertificated personnel should also have established channels of communication with teachers and administrators.

SELECTING AND PROMOTING THE SCHOOL STAFF

As a representative of the central administration, the elementary school principal should participate in the selection of new staff members. In many systems, unfortunately, the principal has little contact with prospective employees and, often, teachers and other workers are assigned to the school without consent of the principal. Whether or not the principal has a hand in the selection of new staff members, he is almost sure to share actively in recommending persons for tenure and for promotion, and he is likely to be a key person in upgrading or improving the effectiveness of the school's staff.

Because the position supported throughout this volume is that the professional staff of the individual school needs to be a working team, the authors believe strongly that the responsibility for selecting new staff members should be shared.¹⁰ To the extent possible, prospective teachers who have met the minimum standards set up by the board of education should visit the school in the spring of the year, preferably for a full day. Staff members should be given an opportunity to meet and talk with the prospective employees and should be asked to communicate their opinions to the principal regarding the suitability of the candidates. Preferably, several persons should be interviewed in this way, and then recommendations from the staff should be transmitted by the principal to the central administration.

Practically, however, most new teachers are employed during the summer months when returning staff members may not be available for conferences. Frequently, the principal is pursuing further graduate study or is enjoying a vacation at the very time the prospective employee is able to visit the community. For some time, moreover, elementary school teachers have been in short supply, and superintendents have found themselves in the embarrassing position of having to accept every qualified applicant for a position. Consequently, teacher selection practices have tended to become almost wholly controlled by the central administrative offices. In many systems the principal does not meet the new teachers, new cafeteria workers, and new custodians until a day or two prior to the opening of school. While this condition is lamentable, it is in many instances understandable. Awareness of difficulties inherent in plans to involve teachers and principals in the selection process should

¹⁰ This position is receiving increasing support each year. See, for example, Calvin Grieder and William E. Rosenstengel, *Public School Administration* (New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1954), Chap. 8, "Selecting the Teaching Personnel."

not encourage administrative personnel to give up too easily. The authors agree with Grieder and Rosenstengel when they state, "Certainly the principal should interview all persons who are candidates for positions in his school."¹¹

Substitute Teachers

When the regular classroom teacher is ill or must be absent from school, a substitute has to be obtained. A number of studies have been made to identify current administrative practices in relation to substitute teaching.¹² Central office control to make sure that the roster of possible substitutes constitutes the best qualified persons in the community is essential. Selection by the principal on the basis of previous experiences with the substitute or on the basis of information concerning the substitute furnished by the central office, *plus an individual interview by the principal prior to employment*, is needed.

As is true with many other administrative matters, the problem of substitute teachers is one which should be carefully studied by most school staffs. Standard practice in most systems is to expect the substitute teacher to follow the lesson plans of the absent teacher. Considerable doubt about the validity of such procedures is raised by teachers who have served as substitutes, by teachers who have returned after an illness to a class which has supposedly continued the plans previously made, and by principals who attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of the substitute-teaching program. The authors believe that substitute teachers should be selected primarily on the basis of their understanding of children of various ages. Substitute teachers should be expected to provide good learning experiences for pupils, whether they are with them for a few hours or for several weeks. Whether the activities are related to what the class has previously been studying or whether they are only partially related is not deemed crucial.

Teacher Rating

In many systems principals are expected to provide the central administration with information concerning a teacher's effectiveness. Usually teachers serve a probationary period prior to achievement of tenure or coverage by a continuing-contract plan. Principals and supervisors are given primary responsibility for making recommendations to the superintendent regarding the re-employment of persons who have not achieved

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 192.

¹² See, for example, Floyd V. Turner, "The Administrative Policies Governing Substitute-Teacher Service in Major American Cities" (Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation; Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1952).

- and locally evolved, since objectives set by one group will not be exactly similar to those set by any other group.
6. Techniques must be developed for gathering evidence of individual growth and development.
7. An evaluative process makes intelligent use of objective testing instruments which are available or can be constructed.¹⁵

The good elementary school principal will function in this area of responsibility, as in all others, in conformity with principles of democratic leadership. If he does, the focus of his attention and energies will be directed not to past behavior, as rating scales are, but rather to creating situations which will produce more desirable behavior on the part of all teachers in the present and the future. Involving teachers, pupils, and parents in total-school evaluation seems to be a more fruitful way of stimulating individual teacher effectiveness than passing judgment occasionally on the teacher's work. Acceptance of people as they are and no hard and fast guidelines for action can be laid down that will serve in all instances, the following suggestions may prove helpful:

1. Encourage the superintendent to give principals a responsible role in teacher selection. Insist on personal interviews with all candidates if at all possible.
2. To the extent possible, involve other staff members, especially those with whom the candidate will work most closely, in the process of selection.
3. Through careful study of all information collected about the available substitute teachers and from interviews with them in advance of need, attempt to identify those best qualified to provide good learning experiences for children.
4. Provide an orientation program for substitute teachers that involves the total staff and builds mutual understanding and respect.
5. Resist pressures which force you to judge the effectiveness of teachers by any simple rating scale. Instead, create stimulating in-service education activities and curriculum improvement programs to bring about teacher growth.
6. Willingly seek ways of identifying more accurately those individuals who will be effective educational leaders and help provide on-the-job training opportunities for them.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 67-70, *passim*.

tenure. Evidence is also collected in many systems about the effectiveness of teachers who have already been placed on tenure or continuing contracts. Those deemed most capable are frequently selected for administrative or supervisory positions.

Judgments concerning the effectiveness of the individual teacher are recorded in many systems on some sort of rating scale. These scales may provide space for self-evaluation by the teacher and also evaluation by the principal. Educators are not agreed about the desirability of rating devices. A committee of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development has indicated that a cooperative program for curriculum development and for appraisal of the educational offerings is more likely to result in an improved school program than any rating practice known.¹³ Reasons given by the committee for doubting the value of teacher-rating plans include

Teacher-rating plans often fail to respect individual personality. . . . Rating plans tend to encourage conformity rather than acting on thinking. . . . Most teacher-rating plans lack qualities of cooperative evaluation. . . . Rating plans are an intermittent rather than a continuous form of evaluation, and are directly or indirectly imposed from the outside, rather than developed as an integral part of the teaching-learning situation. . . . In most rating plans, evaluation is a concern of people in status positions, rather than a cooperative responsibility of all persons affected by the process. . . . Teacher-rating plans often work to prevent, rather than to foster and guide, change in behavior. . . . When rating plans work for behavioral change, the direction of change is often imposed with the plan rather than cooperatively evolved by the group being evaluated. . . . Most rating plans leave little or no opportunity for intelligent selection and use of the best techniques for gaining evidence of behavioral change.¹⁴

The committee believes that any good program of educational appraisal undertaken has the following characteristics:

1. The process is a cooperative enterprise involving pupils, school people, and lay citizens.
2. The program of appraisal starts where teachers are and goes on from there.
3. Evaluation must be an integral part of the school community's program for improving the educational process, never an end-product not imposed by administrative order.
4. The program of appraisal is continuous and comprehensive.
5. Methods and procedures for evaluating teacher services must be cooperatively

¹³ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Better Than Rating* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1950).

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, Chap. 5, *passim*.

KEEPING RECORDS AND REPORTS

For discussion purposes it is sometimes desirable to distinguish between records and reports, although, practically, most of the principles that can be presented for a principal's guidance concerning record-keeping are also applicable when consideration is given to report making. Heck describes the differences in these words:

If not pressed too far, certain distinctions may be made between records and reports. A record is made by a given person or office for his or its own use; a report is made by a given person or office for the use of some other person or office. A record tends to be of a more permanent nature; a report, however, upon being received, may be filed and become a part of the records of the receiving person or office. The record is usually the basis for making reports.¹⁶

The records which have to be kept in elementary schools and the reports which have to be completed, regarding aspects of the school's functioning, vary from state to state and from district to district. Attempts have been made, with some success, to standardize record-keeping procedures in regard to information obtained about pupils, but our heritage of local control of education has resulted in myriad procedures which have not been subjected to efficiency studies. Records must be kept in each elementary school to indicate the attendance of the individual pupil. Records also include, in most instances, indication of the child's progress, information concerning his health status, data regarding his home background, and information obtained from administering standardized tests of various types.¹⁷

Except in rare instances, the records to be kept by the principal have been determined by the central administration of the school district and/or the state department of education. Certainly one of the jobs of the beginning principal is to become well acquainted with current practices in the system. If the school system is large, an administrative assistant, probably, will provide orientation for new principals and consultant help for those who have been in the system. If the school system is small, the new principal will need to take the initiative in obtaining needed information. The superintendent or his secretary, other experienced principals, and returning members of the school staff will be resource persons to contact for help. Initially, little or no attempt should

¹⁶ Arch O. Heck, "Pupil Personnel Work—III: Pupil Records and Reports," in Walter S. Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (rev. ed.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950), p. 924.

¹⁷ See Fred C. Ayer, *Practical Child Accounting* (rev. ed.; Austin, Tex.: Steck Company, 1953); Ruth W. Strang, *Every Teacher's Records* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947); and Arthur E. Traxler, *How to Use Cumulative Records* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1947).

be made to bring about changes in the records. If needed, changes should occur only after thorough acquaintance with local techniques and problems.

Because complaints regarding record-keeping procedures are so universal among teachers, the elementary school principal who provides opportunity for staff members to share in identifying problems is almost sure to meet with suggestions from the staff that something should be done to improve recording practices. If staff members begin to work cooperatively on the problem, they will want to ask themselves questions such as the following:

1. What information does the state require the school to obtain?
2. What information does the local board of education and/or the superintendent of schools require the school to obtain and record?
3. What information does the staff need in order to perform competently their teaching and guidance responsibilities?
4. What information is now recorded that is not needed?
5. Are the records easy to keep?
6. Are the records easily accessible to those who use them?
7. How can the quality of the information which is recorded be improved?
8. Can record-keeping procedures be simplified and streamlined?

Answers to such questions, of course, depend upon state and local rules and regulations. Two records are of such importance that they warrant special treatment: the cumulative record and the attendance record.

The Cumulative Record

The most important records kept in elementary schools are the individual cumulative records on which are recorded all important data about a child that the school is able to collect or deems essential. In some states, a uniform cumulative record system has been adopted. An example is given on pages 264-267.¹⁸ As will be noted, the California cumulative record is of the folder type. Special inserts are used to record health information, curricular experiences, and adjustment factors. While fairly complicated—as indeed any system which purports to collect sufficient data to give a picture of the “whole” child must be—the form is relatively easy to use. Providing “supplements” for special types of information, as is done in the California cumulative record, is sound from a practical standpoint. If the school is small and has limited special services to draw upon, the supplements can be filed in the main folder

¹⁸ Samples of several other cumulative record forms can be found in Arthur E. Traxler, *Techniques of Guidance* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1945), pp. 215-234.

1. IDENTIFICATION DATA		CHECK BOX	
LAST NAME	FIRST NAME	M	F
MIDDLE NAME			
NICKNAME (Pencil)			
BIRTH DATE	BIRTH DATE VERIFICATION	PLACE OF BIRTH	
		CITY (OR COUNTY)	
		STATE (OR NATION)	

[illegible]

COMMENTS	COMMENTS	COMMENTS

[illegible][illegible][illegible]

DATE GIVEN	GRADE	NAME OF TEST	FORM LEVEL		READING			ARITHMETIC			LANGUAGE			COMMENTS	EXAMINER		
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15

[illegible][illegible][illegible]

YEAR GRADE	INTERESTS, ACTIVITIES, LEADERSHIP	FAMILY AND HOME RELATIONSHIPS OUT OF SCHOOL RESPONSIBILITIES	ATTITUDES AND FEELINGS ABOUT SELF, PEERS, SCHOOL	INTERESTS IN SCHOOL SERVICES AND/OR COMMUNITY AGENCIES
YEAR 17 -17				
UNDERGRADUATE				
YEAR 18 -18				
GRADE				
YEAR 19 -19				
GRADE				
YEAR 20 -20				
GRADE				
YEAR 21 -21				
GRADE				
YEAR 22 -22				
GRADE				
YEAR 23 -23				
GRADE				
YEAR 24 -24				
GRADE				
YEAR 25 -25				
GRADE				
YEAR 26 -26				
GRADE				
YEAR 27 -27				
GRADE				
YEAR 28 -28				
GRADE				
YEAR 29 -29				
GRADE				
YEAR 30 -30				
GRADE				

7. GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT THROUGH SCHOOL EXPERIENCES

INDICATE MAJOR CURRICULUM UNIT, DESCRIPTION OF EXPERIENCE, AND DURATION. INITIAL EACH ENTRY. THIS SPACE MAY ALSO BE USED FOR INDICATING DEGREE OF SUCCESS IN SCHOOL EXPERIENCES AND READERS USED.

[illegible]

Requirements of U.S. Constitution, American History, State and Local Government satisfactorily completed

[illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible]

in the principal's office. If, on the other hand, a health center is provided and staffed by competent personnel, the health record can be kept in that office. Similarly, if good storage facilities are available to teachers, the curricular experiences supplement might normally be retained in the classroom.

The folder-type record has several advantages over the card- or ledger-type records found in some schools. The prime advantage is *flexibility*. If additional information is deemed necessary, supplements can be added to the record easily. Anecdotal records may be kept therein. Notes from parents, presenting information of particular significance, may also be kept in the folder. The folders are easily filed and are printed on cardboard so that they may be handled over a number of years without much danger of deterioration or damage. More space is provided—twice as much as on a card of the same size. The folders are, moreover, easy to use (except that most, if not all, of the information has to be recorded by hand), because they lie flat and are individual units, unlike the ledger-type records.

In numerous elementary schools fair storage facilities (steel files with tumbler locks) are being provided in the classroom so that, increasingly, the cumulative records on individual children can be kept where they are most needed. The authors, while supporting such trends in general, believe that unless *fireproof* storage can be provided in the individual classroom an office record also should be kept. The principal's record can be much simpler than the pupil's cumulative folder. It should be housed in a fireproof safe and may include for each pupil only (1) name, age, birth date, (2) date of entry into school, (3) record of attendance, and (4) record of achievement.¹⁹ Since the cumulative folder should go with the child when he moves into the next higher unit of the school system (or, more accurately, should be sent by the principal to the new school), an office record should be available. Normally these simpler office records should be kept for several years. Many states have regulations regarding the disposing of old records. Before destroying any, be sure to check with the superintendent or his assistant.

If cumulative records are housed in the classroom, principals may occasionally need to remind teachers about the confidential nature of the information contained on the records so that abuses will not occur. As indicated in Chapter 7, many teachers are encouraging pupils to keep samples of their class work for use in evaluation procedures. It is obvious that separate filing facilities need to be provided for such material—in no instance should the cumulative folders be used for that purpose. It

¹⁹ Raymond N. Hatch, *Guidance Services in the Elementary School* (Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1951), p. 56.

may be desirable at times to go over the cumulative record with the pupil and his parents; but, information recorded about other children and other families must be treated as confidential. Cumulative record files must not be open for pupil use.

Attendance Records and Problems

Because education is a state function and because in most states some money for the support of education is distributed on the basis of an equalization formula which includes an attendance factor, most states require each classroom teacher to maintain a "register" or "record book." Usually the register provides space for attendance data which the teacher needs in completing periodic reports to the principal. Frequently space is provided for marks, which the teacher may wish to record on a daily basis. Some information about the pupil is almost sure to be called for, such as his date of birth, his address, and the name of parent or guardian. A space to indicate whether the pupil was promoted or retained in the grade may also be provided. Generally, a summary sheet or sheets are given on which the teacher combines all the information about the class at specified periods of time, usually each month or six weeks. At the end of the school year, a similar report combines all the data contained in the periodic summaries.

Not only is the principal responsible for collecting attendance data from each teacher and combining it into a record for the school as a whole but also he is responsible in most systems for the accuracy of the teachers' registers. As any experienced principal knows, attendance records prepared by teachers, which require horizontal and vertical cross-checking, frequently are not accurate. Time taken to explain the register to new teachers is usually time saved. Once the procedure is fully understood, the process of keeping attendance data usually becomes quite routine.

In keeping attendance records, as in all other phases of his administrative duties, the principal can proceed in various ways to accomplish the task.

He can decide the form on which teachers are to make reports concerning attendance and the dates on which such reports are due. When such a decision has been made, he can convey the substance of it to the staff by various means: orally in a faculty meeting, informally as he meets teachers in the halls and lounge, in writing—by utilizing a duplicated announcement or bulletin to the staff or by posting a notice on the faculty bulletin board. He will, of course, provide forms on which the data are to be supplied and suggest routines for daily checks on absentees.

The principal may believe, on the other hand, that the staff should share in making decisions regarding the keeping of attendance records.

Instead of his making decisions, the principal may ask staff members how they think the problem should be solved. Many of the teachers will probably indicate "the way we did it last year" seemed to be satisfactory, and suggest its continuance. Without opportunity for making an intelligent choice or for honest consideration of other possibilities, some staff member is quite likely to move that the method of reporting absentees and of submitting monthly attendance records be continued as previously provided. Action is apt to be taken quickly, with little thought having been required.

A principal who believes that the staff should share in making administrative decisions which directly affect them may proceed differently. Unless members of the staff express dissatisfaction with methods currently employed in reporting attendance, the principal may decide to analyze the effectiveness of these methods in terms of the problems he faces—developing a combined report for the superintendent from the individual reports furnished by the teachers and checking (sometimes with the help of attendance workers) on absentees. If he feels that methods currently used are not satisfactory for *his* purposes, he will want to think through ways of improving the system. If, on the other hand, teachers raise questions concerning methods of reporting attendance, he will want to explore with them the sources of their difficulty. In either case, several proposals as to how to proceed may be developed. These might include: (1) The principal as a committee of one investigates how other schools in the system and in nearby communities are solving the problem. (2) The principal checks with the state department of education for suggested ways of proceeding. (3) A small subgroup canvasses possibilities and suggests two or three of the better proposals to the total staff for consideration. (4) A subgroup of the faculty collects data—especially opinions of teachers and principal—regarding the effectiveness of the system now used and also polls staff members for ways of refining the procedures to eliminate sources of dissatisfaction. (5) Individual staff members are asked to think about the problem, to find out all they can from other teachers and principals and from the professional library during a period of two or three weeks, and to come prepared to make specific recommendations at a subsequent meeting.

The principal, as the leader, uses the basic concerns of the group (including his own concerns) as the starting point for study and action. He accepts responsibility for helping the group raise its "sights" concerning what may be done to improve attendance at school and to simplify or make more effective the records kept. He provides assistance as the group decides how to attack the problem. If the group is to improve in its decision-making activities, the principal will need to make

sure that decisions are not made until the evidence needed for sound judgments is available and has been considered. He will accept responsibility as a member of the group to help provide needed data. Possible alternatives will be enumerated by the group members as they think together.

If principals give staff members an opportunity to share in making decisions regarding administrative routines which affect them, the individual teacher is much more likely to perform at a higher level of efficiency and, simultaneously, to feel better about the total working situation. It is quite probable that different ways of proceeding may be established for lower and upper grades. Teachers in the lower grades, for instance, may feel that instead of asking children who have been absent to present written excuses to the office, each teacher should handle the problem in his own way in the classroom. Upper-grade teachers, however, may believe that the central office should clear all returnees before they are readmitted to class. There is no reason why dual routines should not be established, if they result from cooperative planning on the part of the staff.

IMPROVING ATTENDANCE. Principals not only have responsibility for keeping records concerning attendance, but also are given some administrative responsibility in most systems for attempting to improve attendance. Since school attendance usually determines in part the funds available for support of the system from state sources, administrators are anxious to improve the average daily attendance.²⁰ In some systems, visiting teachers are provided to cope with the attendance problem. Special qualifications may be required; for example, in Louisiana, persons employed for this purpose have background in social work. In many communities, however, the burden of responsibility for improving attendance rests with the principal.

What can be done? Several specific suggestions can be given, although these may not be applicable in all situations.

1. Employ qualified teachers and surround them with a stimulating and permissive climate—one in which they will continue to grow. Good teachers usually have few attendance problems.
2. Work to establish effective home-school relations. Attendance depends primarily upon parent support and interest. Help parents see what excessive absence does to the child's own progress and to the school's support.
3. Improve the program of the school. When learning experiences are

²⁰ As an example, in 1953-54, an increase of 1 per cent in the average daily attendance in the three cities where the authors reside would have meant an increase to the district in actual dollars as follows: Albuquerque, \$63,968; Atlanta, \$36,250; Nashville, \$16,600.

so interesting that no one wants to miss, when interests are sharpened, when needs are met, when talents are developed—then attendance is good.

4. Encourage the district to employ a qualified social worker or workers to help alleviate conditions which lead to poor attendance or truancy, such as lack of clothing or food, despair because of unemployment, lack of medical care, insufficient parental guidance, and so on.

5. Make a daily check on absentees, including a telephone call or visit, to determine reasons for absence. The P.T.A. provides this service in many schools, so that an early search can be made for any child who started to school but never arrived.

6. While encouraging regular attendance, never put such emphasis on it that basic health factors will be overlooked or ignored. The "attendance banners" and "perfect attendance certificates," which are sometimes used in an effort to improve the record, are of doubtful value and may actually be harmful. A child who is coming down with measles, chicken pox, mumps, or influenza is better off at home—for attendance as well as personal reasons!

Reports

Reports submitted to the central administration or through it to state, regional, or national groups merit the principal's careful consideration. Modifications in the reports required by the local district can, of course, be brought about more easily than in those desired or required by state authorities. If the principal has doubts about the value of certain information called for on local reports or if he has suggestions for simplifying the forms so that the same data are more easily and understandably presented, such ideas should certainly be presented to the administrative council or to the superintendent if a council is not operating. If changes are suggested, they should be presented in writing along with a sample of the report containing the proposed changes.

Whether justified or not, recipients of reports from elementary schools make judgments about the principal based upon the quality of the report. It matters little, if at all, that subordinate clerical helpers (perhaps high school business education students) were responsible for the preparation of the report. As the recognized administrative officer of the school, the principal is responsible, and he cannot delegate this responsibility to others. Extreme care, therefore, should be exercised to insure that reports submitted from the school evidence high standards of accuracy and effectiveness.

In all aspects of his functioning, but especially in the preparation of official reports, the elementary school principal needs to demonstrate high

moral and ethical principles. Not only is it ethically wrong to alter data because of the desire to "make a good showing" but also it is clearly illegal. Padding attendance figures in order to receive additional state funds for the school district or adding to the actual number of free lunches for needy pupils in order to maintain federal allotments of surplus commodities and subsidies are not unknown practices, according to informal statements by school principals. Any person who is a party to such action is subject to legal action and loss of professional status.²¹ The principal should work to improve any undesirable situation, but for moral and ethical reasons as well as conformity with statutes, he should make sure that reports concerning the school for which he is responsible are honestly and accurately made.

Whenever reports are submitted from the elementary school, the principal will find it advisable to check to see that the following principles are supported. These might be thought of as evaluative criteria for judging reports.

1. All data called for in the report should be presented. Many forms required by local, state, or federal authorities are complicated, and it is easy for employees to overlook or omit data. A sound practice is to make sure that all blanks are filled, either with requested data or some such phrase as "not applicable."

2. All data contained in the report should be accurate. Unless estimates are specifically called for, every item should be exactly correct. Normally, percentages need not be carried beyond two decimal places. All computations should be checked by an adding machine or calculator, if at all possible.

3. The report should be neat, legible, and in acceptable form. Most reports from the principal's office should be typewritten. If secretarial services are not provided, it is important that the principal be a competent typist. When erasures on vital statistics are made, initials in ink should be inscribed nearby to indicate that the correction was made prior to the time the report was officially signed.

4. The report should be proofread by a competent person or persons. Simply reading through a statistical report does not guarantee accuracy, even though some mistakes can be detected in that manner. Preferably, the person who typed the report should read it orally while the person authorized to sign the report, normally the principal, checks simultaneously to make sure that the report is correct in every detail.

5. A copy of the report should be retained in the school files, and the

²¹ For the story of what happened in one instance, see "Scandal in Sandusky," *Time*, 61:51 (March 23), 1953.

information upon which the report is based should be retained for approximately one year. It may seem rather useless to retain raw data after a typed report has been submitted, but frequently the central administration will ask that particular items or facts be verified. If the original data or worksheets are retained for a reasonable period of time, considerable effort may be saved.

SUMMARY

In this chapter several of the important administrative responsibilities of the elementary school principal have been discussed. As a representative of the central administrative staff of the school system, the principal has considerable responsibility for interpreting policies of the board of education and regulations of the central office to the teachers and to parents and pupils. Simultaneously, the principal needs to convey to the central authorities the concerns, needs, and aspirations of teachers, parents, and children, so that administrative decisions will be based on accurate information regarding the school and its functioning.

The principal has responsibilities in connection with the selection and promotion of the school staff. While the extent of his participation in selection may vary from system to system, he is almost sure to have a vital role in determining whether or not the teacher should be re-employed and in opening opportunities for promotion.

The elementary school principal is responsible also for the records kept by the school and for the reports prepared from them. Whether he prepares the reports himself or has subordinates complete them, the principal is responsible for the accuracy and effectiveness of all reports.

Throughout the chapter, suggestions have been given which may be of help to principals as they face administrative problems in the areas enumerated. Because situations differ so markedly from community to community, no "pat" answers which will guarantee administrative success can be given. The principal will need to face realistically the problems he confronts in his school and to utilize intelligence and principles of leadership as he attempts to solve them. Other areas of administrative responsibility are presented in Chapter 11.

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDY

1. In Unknown City, teachers are selected by the personnel department of the central administration. However, every principal is invited to look over the records of the new appointees and request the assignment of those individuals who seem

to possess the abilities and qualities best suited to his particular school. Mr. Jackson, principal of Elmwood Avenue School, believes that principals should also participate in the initial selection of the teachers. How should he proceed to convince other members of the administrative staff?

- (a) Write a letter to the superintendent and director of personnel expressing his views.
- (b) Discuss the matter over the telephone with the director of personnel.
- (c) Contact the Research Division of the National Education Association for information concerning policies in other similar communities.
- (d) Suggest to the administrative council that the whole teacher-selection process be carefully studied.
- (e) Ask the U.S. Office of Education for suggestions.
- (f) Mention it informally to other principals and administrative staff members whenever an occasion presents itself.

What other possibilities can you suggest? What situation exists in your community? How can improvements be made in teacher selection?

2. Two new faculty members, both unmarried women, are joining your school faculty. Returning staff members number thirteen, seven of whom are long-time residents of the community. Think through the steps you might take to orient the new teachers to your community and school.

3. The administrative staff of the school system has set Christmas holidays for the schools in the district and has received the approval of the board of education. Because Christmas falls on Sunday, schools are scheduled to remain in session through the twenty-third. Several of your teachers ask if anything can be done to secure a change so that they can be home for Christmas Eve. What would you do?

4. You have accepted a principalship in a new school system and discover early in the year that a merit-rating plan is operative in the system, although you did not know this when you accepted the position. You have deep-seated reservations about the desirability of merit-rating schemes, but realize that you will be expected to rate each of your teachers toward the end of the year. How would you proceed? Would you resign? Would you attempt to find out all you could about the local plan? Would you attempt to get special approval which would exempt your school? Would you involve teachers in the process? What data would you want to collect?

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Better Than Rating*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1950.
- Ayer, Fred C., *Practical Child Accounting*. Rev. ed.; Austin, Tex.: Steck Company, 1953.
- Center for Intergroup Education, University of Chicago, *Diagnosing Human Relations Needs*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1951.

- Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1945.
- Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*. Twenty-seventh Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948.
- Grieder, Calvin, and William E. Rosenstengel, *Public School Administration*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1954. Chap. 17.
- Hand, Harold C., *What People Think about Their Schools*. Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Company, 1948.
- Hatch, Raymond N., *Guidance Services in the Elementary School*. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1951.
- Jacobson, Paul B., William C. Reavis, and James D. Logsdon, *Duties of School Principals*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950.
- National Committee on Cumulative Records, *Handbook of Cumulative Records*. Bulletin No. 5, U.S. Office of Education; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1944.
- National Society for the Study of Education, *Citizen Cooperation for Better Public Schools*. Fifty-third Yearbook; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954. Part I.
- Otto, Henry J., *Elementary School Organization and Administration*. 3rd ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954.
- Reinoehl, Charles M., and Fred C. Ayer, *Classroom Administration and Pupil Adjustment*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1940.
- Sumption, Merle R., *How to Conduct a Citizens School Survey*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952.
- Torgerson, Theodore L., *Studying Children*. New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1947.
- Traxler, Arthur E., *Techniques of Guidance*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1945.
- Wiley, Roy DeVerl, *Guidance in Elementary Education*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952.
- Yeager, William A., *Administration and the Pupil*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949.

Leadership in Administration of the School (continued)

IN CHAPTER 10, several of the administrative responsibilities of the elementary school principal were discussed, including interpreting policies of the board of education and regulations of the central administrative staff to teachers and parents; conveying to the central administration information concerning the needs, aspirations, and problems of teachers, parents, and children; selecting the school staff; and keeping records and reports.

This chapter continues the analysis of administrative duties and of the principal's leadership role in the performance of administrative responsibilities, by focusing attention upon accounting for all money collected and spent in the school; obtaining, storing, and distributing school supplies; protecting, maintaining, and improving the school plant and equipment; and operating an efficient office. Finally, this chapter presents several principles of good administration which the authors believe should be supported as the elementary school principal provides administrative leadership.

ACCOUNTING FOR FUNDS

Although the elementary school principal in most school systems has little responsibility, except in preliminary stages, for helping draft the budget recommendations which the superintendent presents to the board of education, almost every principal faces the problem of accounting for money collected at school for various purposes. Many elementary schools operate a hot lunch program, and the principal is usually responsible for the complete management and financial accounting connected

with its operation. In addition, most schools participate in at least a few money-raising campaigns, such as those sponsored by the Red Cross, the Community Chest, and the March of Dimes. Many schools operate stores from which pupils may purchase instructional supplies or food. Library fines, payments for lost textbooks, fees for instructional supplies, admission to special events, and other similar charges result in financial responsibilities for teachers and principals.

Careful procedures must be established to insure that all funds are properly accounted for and spent. The principal, as the representative of the administration, is responsible for providing leadership in the establishment of sound accounting procedures. Many school systems have created, over a period of years, systems of control which work effectively. The new elementary school principal should certainly learn from the superintendent or his administrative assistant any regulations, which the board of education has promulgated, concerning the collection and handling of money. He should obtain from the central office, if copies are not available in the school to which he is assigned, any forms or record books which have been prepared for local use.

The Lunchroom

Because of the size of the operation, accounting procedures for the operation of the lunchroom are likely to be fairly well established. In a few school systems, the lunchrooms are operated directly under the control of the central administration rather than the school principal, in which case the principal, of course, is not responsible for the financial and management aspects of the program. If the lunchroom is managed by the principal, he usually employs a qualified cafeteria manager who is bonded by the board of education and responsible, under the principal, for the entire operation of the lunchroom. The manager, with the cooperation of teachers and pupils and the help of the appropriate supervisors, plans menus, purchases the food, directs its preparation, collects money sufficient to operate the lunchroom, and keeps all records including inventories, balance sheets, and profit and loss statements. In small schools, the principal is likely to be the cafeteria manager himself, employing cooks to prepare the food.

If the principal is responsible for the lunchroom, either directly or through a manager whom he employs, it is of extreme importance that an accounting system be established which will provide continuing information on profit or loss, insure proper handling of all funds, and guarantee prompt payment of all bills. New principals will need to discover from records, from the former principal if he is available, and from cafeteria workers and teachers, the system which was operating

the previous year. If the principal has had little financial accounting in his experience or education, he should call upon persons in the community who know good accounting procedures to help him evaluate the plan which has been used and to help create an improved one if conditions seem to warrant change. Usually, the central administrative office of the school system will contain one or more persons who are capable of providing such assistance. High school teachers of commerce, other elementary school principals who have been working with the system, and local businessmen can furnish assistance. Even if the lunchroom manager is basically responsible for the record-keeping, the principal should know enough about the process to make sure that adequate safeguards are consistently taken. Receipts should be deposited daily in a bank, and all payments should be made by check upon presentation of itemized statements. Periodic audits of the books should be made by qualified persons.

Centralization of Funds

Ideally, all funds, with the possible exception of lunchroom receipts, should be handled through the school office, and the person who handles the money should be bonded. If children contribute to fund-raising drives, either receipts should be given by teachers as the money is collected or the money should be placed directly into a container which is opened in the presence of the representatives of the drive and the school. If the first procedure is followed, teachers should be given receipts from the office when they turn in the collections, and the amount submitted should be checked against the duplicate individual receipts issued to the children. If the second practice is followed, containers should be numbered or identified by room number or teacher's name. A receipt for the container should be issued to the teacher when it is brought to the office, and a subsequent report in writing should be made to the teacher and the children indicating the amount of money contributed.

There is a growing feeling among school administrators that schools are being asked to participate in too many money-raising activities. One board of education that kept records of requests was asked to permit school participation in fifty-four drives during a thirty-six weeks' school term. As a result, the board unanimously agreed to eliminate completely any collection of money at school for community agencies or activities. Admittedly, it is difficult for a board of education or administrative staff to make value judgments concerning which drives are worthy of sponsorship by the schools. It is also obvious that the school cannot participate continually in money-raising activities. The authors believe that schools have partial responsibility for educating children

to share something of what they have with others and that, therefore, once or twice a year the school might well participate in community efforts to raise needed funds.

Any money appropriated by the board of education to purchase instructional supplies not anticipated at budget preparation time or not stocked by the central supply agency; any money appropriated by the P.T.A. for school use; any money resulting from charging admission to special activities (which, generally, is doubtful practice in elementary schools); any money which a council or club may have as a result of its activities; any money which may be collected by fees for instructional supplies—all such money should be deposited to a single school account in the bank. A simple but effective accounting system should be maintained to indicate the amount of money each fund contains.¹

School Stores

Not all elementary schools have a store, but many stores have been developed for various reasons. Frequently, schools which are relatively isolated from shopping areas and which do not furnish all needed supplies have developed a small store to sell instructional supplies, such as paper and pencils. In other communities, ostensibly to prevent the emergence of small stores in the neighborhood, the school store has expanded its services to include the sale of carbonated drinks, candy, nuts, popcorn, and similar items. If the school operates a lunchroom, the sale of food or drinks is usually limited to recess times (recess periods are likely to exist where school stores selling food have been created), and some limit concerning the amount of money which an individual may spend is probably also prescribed. No sale is permitted at noon, usually, until after the children have finished the regular lunch.

If a school store is operated, the principal is responsible for establishing proper accounting procedures to make sure that money and supplies are handled honestly. The principal, as educational leader in the school, has a further responsibility for leading the staff to evaluate the effect of such school policies on the education of the children. Questions such as the following undoubtedly should be answered.

Does the store support what is taught in the instructional program of the school concerning nutrition?

Does the store meet a real need, or is it operated primarily to make some money, at the expense of the children's health?

What alternatives exist? Is it possible, for instance, to furnish all

¹ A description of a simple procedure can be found in Calvin Grieder and William E. Rosenstengel, *Public School Administration* (New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1954), pp. 469-472.

needed instructional supplies through regular school funds; to replace recess periods with directed play; to supplement the noon lunch with snacks consisting of fruit juices, raisins, milk, or fresh fruit?

If the store is retained, how can it be used more effectively as a supporting element in the education of the children?

The Budget

According to the nation-wide study undertaken by the Department of Elementary School Principals, cited earlier in the section, many principals are contributing information for use by the central administrative staff in estimating necessary expenditures a year or more in advance.² The authors believe that, as the principle of local school autonomy gains increased support from school administrators, the elementary school principal will be asked to provide additional leadership in collecting data and listing needs for use by the central staff in developing the district's budget.

As the individual school's wishes are given additional weight in the budget-making process, the principal will involve staff members in co-operative planning to identify needs and aspirations. As requests are developed, the staff should face realistically the problems which will be bequeathed to the central administration when all requests from individual schools are combined. In other words, the principal should make sure that teachers understand the nature of the problems involved: the present tax rate and structure, the present budget of the district and how it is spent, the effect on the tax base if all "dreams" were budgeted, and the problems that will occur in attempting to provide sensible increases in faculty salaries unless every available dollar is spent wisely and well. Teachers and principals can and should demonstrate for other civic employees attributes such as honesty, thrift, sound planning, and efficient budgeting.

The preceding discussion should not be construed to mean that legitimate requests for needed facilities should be trimmed. School leaders have a responsibility to inform parents of what is needed if the school is to perform its functions well. The parents through their elected representatives, the board of education, then decide how much of what is desired can be provided. The process is simplified when every person who participates in planning the budget balances honestly ability and need. Padding budget requests on the theory that "you won't get all

² Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow* (Twenty-seventh Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948), p. 82.

you ask for" then becomes irresponsible behavior. Superintendents have a right to expect better professional leadership from their principals than this. Conversely, principals should expect the central administration to do its very best to honor in full the requests which have resulted from cooperative planning by the total staff and are submitted by the principal.

Because situations vary, it is difficult to prescribe procedures which should be followed by elementary school principals as far as financial accounting is concerned. In most instances, the following suggestions will be found to be practical and sensible.

1. Designate one person to serve as treasurer or accountant for the school. Make sure that this person is bonded in an amount equal to the largest sums likely to be on hand at any one time. Because the teachers' loads are already heavy, normally some other member of the staff should serve—preferably the school secretary.

2. Establish simple yet effective bookkeeping procedures to make sure that checks and double checks are made of all funds collected. Unless a standard procedure has already been adopted by the district, involve resource persons from the parent group and the central administrative staff in establishing a good system.

3. Limit to the extent possible the money-collecting activities which the school supports. Evaluate all money-raising activities in terms of their educational effects.

4. Share with the staff whatever responsibility is given you to participate in financial planning for the school system. Help them improve in getting the most out of every dollar spent.

5. If possible, employ a qualified person to serve as manager of the school lunchroom. Make sure that the same care is exercised in accounting for lunchroom money, supplies, and equipment that is provided in other areas.

6. Provide for competent, periodic review of all financial records.

OBTAINING, STORING, AND DISTRIBUTING INSTRUCTIONAL SUPPLIES

As a representative of the central administration, the elementary school principal is responsible, in most school systems, for ordering, accepting upon delivery, storing, distributing equitably, and planning with the staff for more effective use of instructional supplies. In some school systems centralized purchasing and storage of most items have been established. The principal, under such conditions, usually is free to requisition supplies from the central warehouse under clearly established requisitioning procedures up to maximum allotments set by the district. If the new principal finds such practices followed in the school system he has joined,

he will realize the importance of keeping careful records throughout the year of each requisition, so that the "balance" allotted the school under the distribution plan is known. No principal should ever requisition material which is not needed by the teachers or other staff members in order to "use up" allotments. On the other hand, no principal should be willing to accept meager allotments of needed supplies without some attempt at influencing the central administrative officials to establish a more adequate supply system.

Securing Supplies

The procedure for securing instructional supplies varies greatly from system to system. The principal needs to know the practices being followed for obtaining supplies through regular administrative channels. In many systems one order is filed with the superintendent of schools in the spring of the year for the materials needed the following school year. If the elementary school principal conceives his role to be that of a democratic leader, he will involve members of the staff in determining what should be ordered. Each teacher should indicate probable needs for the ensuing year; these requests should be combined by the principal or his clerk; and then the whole staff should examine the combined request, taking into account all that is known about the financial resources of the school system and the other factors which may affect the system's ability to honor the request.

Many needed instructional aids can now be obtained from industry or government at little or no cost to the school district, and excellent substitutes for costly supplies can be provided by utilizing community resources.³ Supervisory personnel in many school districts have collected recipes for homemade finger paint, suggestions for using old newspapers, ways of using paper towels in place of more costly paper, and so on. The principal certainly has a continuing responsibility to see that the staff considers ways of securing materials at little cost to the district, always with the welfare of the child and his total education as the focus of concern.

No matter how carefully the annual request for supplies is prepared, there are sure to be many times when teachers need materials which could not be anticipated six, eight, or ten months in advance. For this reason, it is highly advisable for the board of education to make arrangements, such as establishing a petty cash fund, for securing essential supplies on an emergency basis. Careful records must be kept indicating how

³ See Division of Surveys and Field Services, *Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials* (Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1956); and Department of Elementary School Principals, *How to Know and How to Use Your Community* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1942).

the money is spent so that the annual request which lists needed supplies can be improved upon.

Storing and Distributing Supplies

In many elementary schools the storage of instructional supplies creates a real problem. If the system happens to operate on the basis of an annual request for supplies and if central purchasing without central storage has been established as common practice, the principal is likely to find that all the instructional supplies furnished by the district are delivered to the school during the summer months. If the school happens to have adequate storage space, no great problem is created by such procedures. If, on the other hand, storage space is at a premium both in and outside the classrooms, administrative headaches can certainly be caused. If textbooks also are furnished by the district, it is quite probable that until the books are issued many supplies will have to remain boxed or in a semi-open state.

In general, principals will save themselves from many headaches in connection with the storage and distribution of instructional supplies if space for all consumable materials is constructed in the classrooms. Teachers need to have materials at hand for use anyway and, if a fairly adequate supply can be stored in each room, pressure on central storage will be considerably lessened and distribution problems also will be minimized. The need for central storage will nevertheless exist; consequently, procedures for withdrawing materials from the central supply will need to be established.

As in all other phases of management, the situation in any school is determined by numerous factors, including size of the staff, availability of storage space, extent of secretarial services provided, location of storage areas in relation to the office, the teaching load of the principal, and the adequacy of the supplies furnished by the school district. The principal is responsible for making sure that all supplies which are supposed to be delivered are actually received and for establishing equitable bases for their distribution. When the staff participates in determining the supply order, equitable distribution should be fairly simple, if all the items ordered are provided in the amounts requested. Frequently, principals find that supply requests have been trimmed considerably by the central administration because of lack of funds. In such instances, the total staff should make decisions concerning ways of meeting the supply problem. Economies will have to be made by all teachers and by the nonprofessional staff. Working agreements, therefore, will need to be established.

Ideally, the central storage room for instructional supplies should be

a part of the school office suite, and the secretary should handle requests for additional supplies. In large schools, in order to provide accurate records of the supplies issued to any teacher, a requisitioning system may be required. Most elementary schools with more than six hundred pupils enrolled have on the staff a part- or full-time secretary.⁴ This person usually handles most of the problems connected with the distribution of supplies, to free the principal for more important leadership duties. In schools with less than six hundred pupils, secretarial service frequently is meager or nonexistent and, unless large amounts of the principal's time are to be consumed in supply distribution, responsibility will have to be assumed by each teacher. The staff should agree on a simple plan which will permit easy withdrawal, balanced with equitable distribution and accurate records. They may agree that a simple sheet on which each teacher records withdrawals should be placed in the supply room near or on the door. Periodic checking of withdrawals against agreed-upon allotments will generally provide all the information needed to make sure that the supplies are intelligently and equitably distributed. An inventory every month or so will help keep the staff informed about the status of the stock.

While checks need to be placed upon teachers to make sure that supplies are not wasted and, also, that a few members of the staff are not consuming much greater quantities of certain items than agreed upon in advance, the principal should remember that it is easy to make securing materials so involved that the morale of the staff is affected. The aim of the principal should be to contribute maximally to the instructional program of the school through effective management of supplies—not to interfere with the progress needlessly through excessive red tape. Building cooperative agreements in advance will eliminate the need for involved supply accounting procedures in most elementary schools.

It seems perfectly feasible for the school council to establish, as part of their service to the school, a technique for distributing supplies. The children could effectively inventory the supply room, designate one or two members of each class as supply helpers, provide an orientation and training program for the helpers, and establish controls to prevent misuse or malpractice. Parent and teacher representatives on the council could provide over-all supervision, but the responsibility could be assumed largely by children. If necessary, the supply room could be staffed by council members during certain periods of the day.

The only reason for suggesting possibilities such as the one presented in the previous paragraph is to encourage principals to canvas possibilities—

⁴ Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, p. 57.

ties creatively when they are confronted with problems. If no secretary is available, if the supply room is not part of the administrative suite of offices, or if the school is quite large and secretarial services are very limited, ways of decentralizing supply distribution will need to be worked out. In most schools, children are the least-used resource, and they need to have opportunities to accept responsible jobs.

Utilizing Textbooks

Textbooks are probably the most significant instructional aids commonly furnished by the schools. Although in some localities parents are still expected to purchase copies of the basic texts, the great majority of school systems are providing textbooks either from funds provided locally or through some plan of state adoption.⁵ Because the single text is no longer considered adequate for an effective instructional program, it is obvious that the school's responsibility for providing additional instructional materials will continue.

Regardless of the plan in operation in the school district, the principal will find that he has important responsibilities connected with the selection, storage, distribution, and accounting of texts furnished by the school. If some form of state adoption is in effect, it is likely that the principal will be designated as textbook custodian for the school and, in such instances, he is legally responsible for proper handling of the state's property. If the texts are locally owned, the principal is responsible for safeguarding the district's investment and is held accountable by the superintendent for establishing adequate controls.

The principal has a leadership role to perform as decisions are made regarding textbooks. The staff, under his guidance, should develop some policies upon which decisions regarding textbooks may be based. The staff will need to answer questions such as the following as they establish their procedures.

Should every child in a classroom have a copy of the same text?

Should all teachers of the same grade use the same texts?

If thirty books can be ordered, is it better to order thirty of the same text or ten copies of three different texts? How about five copies of six different texts?

Should some texts be considered basal and others supplementary?

Should brilliant children be permitted to use texts which are used in higher grades?

⁵ See Ward W. Keesecker, "Free Textbook Trends across the Nation," *School Life*, 32:44 (December), 1949.

How can maximum use of available texts be maintained?

How can maximum use be made of nontextual book materials, which the school furnishes or which are available in the community?

What about workbooks? Should they be used? If so, how?

Clear-cut agreements on many of the above questions are not likely to result from brief faculty discussion. Basic values and fundamental ideas concerning the role of the teacher are involved. As in many other administrative areas, it is desirable for the principal to remember that conformity to an established pattern does not necessarily insure effective teaching. To the extent possible, then, considerable autonomy should be provided each teacher. Teachers, in turn, should recognize that children as well as their parents have ideas concerning texts and their use. The responsibility which the professional educator has for providing leadership should, of course, not be abdicated if one or two disgruntled parents attempt to modify the procedures used by teachers or to force the school to change textbooks which have been selected according to well-established procedures.

Standard procedures of textbook accounting are fairly well established in most school systems. The new principal should check with administrative officials, including other principals, to learn the procedure followed. Generally, each book is clearly stamped to indicate that it is the property of the state or school district; each book is numbered; copies of texts are checked to each teacher, and a record is kept of each book thus drawn from the central supply. If the texts are subsequently assigned to children, the teacher keeps a record of such action. The condition of the book is noted when issued and when returned. Moderate fines for obvious destruction or careless handling of books and for loss of books usually are assessed. Periodic withdrawal of badly worn texts should be standard practice. Such books should either be re-bound for subsequent use as texts or made available for authorized mutilation. That is, if the school has a librarian or parents who serve voluntarily in that capacity, many good resource materials for unit teaching can be constructed from texts which are no longer usable. Teachers and pupils can, of course, also prepare such materials from discarded texts.

As the principal attempts to set up techniques for obtaining, storing, and distributing instructional supplies so that effective teaching is more readily possible, he may find the following suggestions to be helpful. Not all of them will apply in every community, but they may be thought of as guides which are generally useful.

1. Base supply requests which are submitted to the central administra-

tion on the requests of the teachers. To the extent possible, make sure that the program determines the supplies to be provided instead of permitting available supplies to determine the program.

2. Establish systematic procedures for securing free and inexpensive learning materials, but screen all those obtained. The school is not an advertising agency.

3. If at all possible, maintain a small petty cash fund for purchase of supplies which were not anticipated when the annual request was prepared.

4. Develop as extensive supply storage facilities as feasible in each classroom, so that the teacher has at hand the materials needed for effective instruction.

5. Establish a continuing inventory system or some appropriate control over the central supply room.

6. Involve the staff in developing somewhat flexible agreements about the distribution of available supplies, so that each teacher will be assured a minimum supply, yet those with special interests (for instance, creative art) may utilize amounts greater than average.

7. Check carefully to make sure that all supplies charged to the school are actually received.

8. Stimulate the staff to evaluate the procedures utilized in selecting and using textbooks and workbooks.

9. Establish a simple yet effective accounting system for all textbooks which the school furnishes. Use old, discarded texts for developing instructional materials for the opaque projector, unit booklets, and similar aids.

10. Encourage parents to study the textbooks provided by the school, and devote some parent-teacher meetings to discussions on the use of textbooks in modern schools.

CARING FOR THE SCHOOL PLANT AND EQUIPMENT

Boys and girls learn from their surroundings as well as from their textbooks and teachers. It is important, therefore, to provide an environmental setting for them at school that teaches the ideals, attitudes, and values which the staff and the community support. If respect for property is to be taught in the community, then the school should teach respect for it. If appreciation of beauty is to be learned, the whole community including the school should provide a harmonious setting. If cleanliness, orderliness, and high standards of sanitation are to be taught, then the school plant and its equipment must demonstrate these characteristics.

Many new elementary school buildings are constructed each year in the United States, but the great majority of elementary school principals face problems of plant utilization, maintenance, and improvement

rather than problems connected with the development of plans for a new structure. In order to present briefly the leadership role of the principal in relation to school plant and equipment, four main areas of responsibility are presented: (1) utilizing the plant and its equipment, (2) maintaining the plant and its equipment, (3) improving the plant and its equipment, and (4) planning for additions to the plant and for new buildings.

Utilizing the Plant and Equipment

For a number of years the pressure of enrollment in elementary schools has been forcing principals to endeavor to make the maximum use of available space. As pointed out in Chapter 6, various organizational schemes have been created to increase plant utilization. In some systems administrative officials have increased class size from thirty to forty or forty-five pupils per teacher. In many schools the library, the stage in the auditorium, a portion of the lunchroom, and even the principal's office have been converted into below par but almost passable classrooms. As a last resort in most instances, half-day programs of education, so that two groups of children use the same classroom, have been developed.

While such expediciencies should not continue to be condoned in a country with the financial resources of the United States, opportunity exists for principals, who are faced with an overabundance of children, to attempt to discover ways of providing an improved education under adverse circumstances. Rather than bemoaning fate if faced with overcrowded conditions, the principal should exert leadership in helping the staff attempt to make the most of the opportunities it has. Staff members may discover better ways to teach than are now known. If two groups of children have to use the same classroom each day, the question which should be squarely faced by the staff is, "What can we do to this room so that it effectively serves two teachers and sixty or seventy children?"

Some unorthodox experiments may need to be undertaken in an attempt to find acceptable answers. Ordinarily, teachers and principals agree that an unusual amount of storage space for personal belongings is required when two groups use the same room. One problem which should be faced, then, is how to get more storage space. Some furniture, thought previously by the teacher to be needed, may have to be removed from the room in order to get more space. Unused space between radiators or behind doors may be converted into storage. Space overhead may be utilized for materials infrequently needed so that children may use that nearer the floor. A balcony for storage might be constructed. A number of attempted solutions will probably have to be tried before fairly satisfactory answers are discovered.

Two frequently mentioned problems besetting teachers in double-session classes are (1) how to provide sufficient individual attention, and (2) how to provide enrichment opportunities when the school day is shortened. More effective utilization of space may provide part of the answer, coupled with more effective use of the dual staff provided in such schools. The off-duty teachers may be able to provide opportunities for brilliant children to pursue their interests, drawing upon the library facilities of the total community and providing small group sessions which meet in halls, in the auditorium, or even out of doors when the weather permits. Children who need remedial instruction can also be singled out for a slightly longer school day once or twice a week, utilizing unused building space and off-duty teachers. Music, especially rhythmic and appreciation phases of the program, may have to be provided in a portion of the lunchroom, in the hall, the auditorium, the gymnasium, or out of doors. Table-top space in the lunchroom may have to be used for artistic experiences during hours when lunch is not served. Teachers may need to encourage parents to provide at home materials such as easels, paints, clay, and simple tools, which children are not using at school because the normal day's activities have had to be curtailed substantially.

As far as plant utilization is concerned, the principal should realize that in almost any school building a great deal of space is unused for a considerable portion of every day. Cooperative planning by teachers, parents, and pupils will help create solutions to knotty problems resulting from too many children for the available facilities. Questions such as the following may help the staff to discover and make more effective use of space.

Can better use be made of wall space in classrooms, corridors, and lunchroom? Does every wall teach?

Can more space be provided in the classroom by better grouping of furniture, by eliminating some furniture, by stacking furniture for a portion of the day, or by providing better storage facilities?

Can more use be made of the floor as a desirable work area, once more space is found in the room?

What additional use can be made of corridor space, lunchroom space, auditorium or gymnasium space, the library, the outdoors, closets under stairways, the office?

What use can be made of the overhead space in classrooms? Can it be utilized without interfering unduly with ventilation and lighting?

Coordination of the program of the school is just as essential when the building is adequate as when it is overcrowded. If there are special service centers, such as a library, art room, music room, or health center,

scheduling the use of such space will have to be done. Plans for effective use of equipment, such as projectors, will also need to be made. Naturally, the principal is expected to make sure that decisions are made cooperatively and that an evaluation of the procedures adopted is frequently undertaken.

Maintaining the Plant and Equipment

Procedures to be followed by the principal in making sure that the school district's investment in building and equipment is properly maintained vary from place to place. Some systems, especially if a fairly large administrative unit exists, provide a full-time staff of maintenance specialists, who are available "on schedule" for regular reconditioning of the plant and "on call" for emergencies. School custodians may be responsible to an assistant superintendent of buildings as well as to the principal. In smaller administrative units, the custodian is usually expected to be a Jack-of-all-trades, and he handles all except major maintenance tasks which probably are allotted on a contract basis to local firms when school is not in session. In the smallest school units, a custodian may not be provided and each group of children under the guidance of the teacher may be expected to provide janitorial services for its own learning area, with older children accepting responsibilities for corridors and areas jointly used. The principal's role will vary, of course, depending upon the provisions made by the central administrative staff.

Regardless of the setting, the total staff under the leadership of the principal should endeavor to create a feeling of pride and responsibility concerning the school building and its equipment. Participation in the improvement of the building or its equipment is one of the best ways of engendering such identification. A child who has helped sand and re-finish the desk or table tops is not likely to whittle or otherwise mar the surface in subsequent days. Children who have helped construct needed furniture, such as bookcases, or who have helped repaint chairs and tables usually take pride in their equipment. Groups that have an opportunity to plan with their teacher and their parents for the beautification of the school grounds are not likely to participate in vandalism directed at school property. The instructional program thus has a real contribution to make in the maintenance of the school plant and its equipment.

In most elementary schools, a custodian is given primary responsibility for maintaining adequate conditions of cleanliness and warmth. Usually the custodian is directly responsible to the principal, although many requests for his services are almost sure to be made directly by teachers and children. Some administrative authorities insist that all requests for custodial service should be made through the office and, generally, this is

desirable except in cases of emergency. When a child unexpectedly vomits, as happens occasionally in any elementary school, a direct appeal to the janitor for assistance is certainly justified. Channeling routine requests through the principal's office, nevertheless, will make it possible for some control to be provided in order to prevent undue overloads on the custodian at certain times. Good relations between the professional and service staff need to be maintained.

The theories of leadership which have been consistently supported throughout this volume are equally applicable to custodians. The service staff should attend at least a portion of many staff meetings and all of some. Service staff members should be made to *feel* so much a part of the school that they contribute ideas for solving problems along with other employed personnel. Even though their formal schooling may be limited, their ideas are needed if the school is to operate smoothly. There is little doubt that if custodians consider themselves members of the team they will take more pride in their work, set higher standards for themselves, and, consequently, take better care of the plant and the equipment.

Although the idea is somewhat unpopular among authorities on school administration, the authors believe that children should have a greater share in the maintenance of the building and its equipment than is now common. In many schools, because custodial services are limited, children carry out tasks such as dusting, emptying wastebaskets, and cleaning erasers. Most custodians would have many additional hours to wash windows, clean lighting fixtures, keep toilets spotlessly clean, keep the boiler room orderly, and keep floors properly waxed, if children would accept responsibilities each day for making sure that classrooms are clean and ready for another day before afternoon dismissal. The small school teaches such responsibility, and it seems to the authors that excellent opportunities to teach children responsibility for cleanliness and have them share work experiences are being overlooked by present practices. It will be necessary, of course, to furnish good sweeping equipment in sufficient quantity that rooms can be swept simultaneously and enough dry, clean mops or chamois skins so that chalkboards can be properly cleaned in a few minutes. Safeguards should be established to make sure that "cleaning up" is not assigned for punishment, but is done cooperatively as a natural component of living together.

In any school district it is the principal's responsibility to see that healthful conditions are maintained, that equipment—whether indoors or on the playground—is safe, that repairs are made quickly when damages occur, that the property of the school district is protected and maintained, so that children will have an attractive and healthful environ-

ment in which to learn. This responsibility must, of course, be shared with many persons—actually with all those who use the building and the equipment. Nevertheless, it is the specific function of the principal to be on the alert for undesirable conditions and to influence others to make their maximum contribution to an effective school plant.

Improving the Plant and Equipment

In some school systems, especially those with centralized maintenance programs, teachers and principals are restricted from making modifications in the plant. Nothing can be painted unless the maintenance crew does it. Nothing can be repaired unless the right person in the administrative channel has been properly notified and a repairman has been secured. While the authors support development of administrative units of sufficient size and vitality that central maintenance staffs are available, it seems also desirable for the principal and his staff to have considerable authority for undertaking improvements, which they feel qualified to make, in the plant and equipment. Such freedom is more likely to be permitted and even encouraged in small communities or in those where economic resources to support education are meager.

Some cautions need to be pointed out if the school is encouraged to act semi-autonomously in improving the plant and the equipment. First, structural changes in the plant should be made only by qualified workmen because of safety factors and only after approval from the central administration. Second, teachers should be expected to discuss with the principal proposed undertakings prior to their inauguration. Principals should, of course, be informed concerning desirable standards of schoolhouse planning, ventilation, lighting, and seating.⁶ Any procedure which departs fundamentally from acceptable standards should be cleared by the principal with the central administration before the change is undertaken. Third, it is possible that some teachers will have pupils spending too much of the school year redecorating the classroom unless intelligent controls are provided. Fourth, in many cities union agreements sharply curtail the improvements which can be voluntarily undertaken, and the principal should therefore be informed of any agreements the board of education has made with respect to building maintenance and repair.

With such cautions in mind or clearly understood by the total staff, teachers should be encouraged to plan with their pupils and the parents for the improvement of the living environment at school. Children and teachers can plan ways of getting more color into the room, utilizing

⁶ The bibliography at the end of this chapter contains some of the best references available.

space more effectively by moving furniture, and obtaining needed equipment through their own efforts. Within limits, such activities provide intense motivation, involve pupils actively in school (and, therefore, community) betterment, and simultaneously help children learn to work together. Many schools are desirably landscaped today because teachers and pupils planned and worked to improve the school grounds. Many classrooms are colorful and attractive because parents and pupils worked with the teacher in improving them.

Planning for Additions and New Buildings

Structural modifications and additions to existing plants may need to be made but, except in rare instances, these should be undertaken only by qualified contractors. Of course, contracts for structural modifications are made by the board of education upon the recommendation of the superintendent. The elementary school principal and his staff should participate in planning modifications and additions and also in planning new elementary schools for the community. Predesign planning steps have been listed by the School Housing Section of the U.S. Office of Education as follows:

- recognition of the need
- faculty discussions and formulation of policies
- policy adoption by the school board
- committee selection with broad community representation
- community-faculty discussions and recommendations
- review and revisions of committee recommendations by superintendent, architect and consultant.⁷

It is apparent in such procedures that the principal of the school has considerable responsibility because of his position as the status leader of the school community. As new buildings are planned or modifications are conceived, he will furnish leadership as envisioned in Chapter 1—helping individuals express their ideas effectively, helping groups become increasingly able to function, serving as a stimulator and moderator, furnishing expert opinion, and acting as a unifying force so that the best possible recommendations result.⁸ The educational program for at least half a century will be shackled or freed by the decisions which are made in reference to new school buildings. Effective leadership, therefore, is especially needed as plants are planned.

⁷ U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, U.S. Office of Education, *Designing Elementary Classrooms* (Special Publication No. 1; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1953), pp. 2-3.

⁸ Principals will find that a particularly helpful volume as new buildings are planned is N. L. Engelhardt, N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., and S. Leggett, *Planning Elementary School Buildings* (New York: F. W. Dodge Corp., 1953).

As the elementary school principal carries out his administrative duties in connection with the plant and its equipment, he may find that some of the following suggestions will be helpful.

1. Look for space which is not fully utilized. Help teachers see possibilities in their classrooms, and encourage custodians to suggest ways of better utilizing the available facilities. Be sure your office is a good example.

2. Experiment with various ways of overcoming crowded conditions instead of moaning about lack of facilities.

3. Keep your eyes open as you walk down corridors, up stair wells, and on the playground for conditions which are not sanitary or not safe. Take action to eliminate the problem with your own custodial staff to the extent permitted by local regulations. Report other needs to the administration in writing.

4. Occasionally, either before or after school hours, tour the building with the custodial staff, discussing problems of cleanliness and maintenance.

5. To the extent possible, involve pupils and teachers in the acceptance of responsibility for basic cleanliness in the classrooms.

6. To the extent possible, involve parents in refinishing furniture, building needed equipment, and working to make the school a home-like place.

7. Establish the general practice of channeling requests for custodial service through the office. Whenever possible, make sure that the requests are promptly met.

8. Make sure that custodians are considered members of the staff. Custodians should attend those staff meetings at which problems affecting their work will be discussed.

9. Provide a good handbook for your custodians.⁹ Encourage service personnel to attend workshops provided by the district or state department on building and equipment maintenance.

10. Involve the total staff and parents in preliminary planning stages of any additions to the building or in planning any new units. Help them keep in mind the cost factor as they dream, but stimulate them to dream.

OPERATING THE SCHOOL OFFICE

The office serves many functions because it is, in a sense, the "nerve center" of the total school. Many of the initial impressions parents and children get about the school are formed in the office. This vital hub of the school wheel may be grim, cold, disorderly, and unorganized, or it

⁹ Several handbooks are listed in the chapter bibliography.

may be inviting, colorful, homelike, and smoothly run. The office may be a place children like to visit, a place parents like to visit, a setting for much informal in-service education of teachers, or it may be a tomblike place avoided by one and all. While the size of the office, its shape, furniture, equipment, and color scheme undoubtedly affect positively or negatively the total impression gained by children, parents, and teachers, the *essence* of the office is determined by the human beings who look upon it as their base of operations. What the office is and what it may become, then, are determined primarily by the principal and his clerical staff.

Most elementary school principals do not decide the size and specifications of the office—these were determined when the building was originally constructed. It seems desirable, therefore, instead of concentrating on ideal office design, to suggest ways of proceeding which the principal can utilize in making his office more nearly ideal regardless of the limiting circumstances which he finds. Because the office is a service center for the whole school, the principal should not determine by himself how to improve it; he should involve others rather systematically in the process. Among the questions which need to be answered by the professional staff, pupils, parents, and the service staff are the following:

1. *What services should the office render?* Parents may suggest a showcase in which lost and found articles are displayed. Children may request a telephone which they may feel free to use. Teachers may request duplicating facilities, a place to interview parents, a workroom that includes a professional library, and a clerk to do typing and necessary record-keeping. Some expressed desires, of course, may be completely beyond the realm of immediate fulfillment, but the principal is in a stronger position to move toward a better center for the school's operation as he gets ideas from those served by the office.
2. *How can the services which are desired be provided?* Usually, expansion of services requires additional personnel. In many schools the employment of additional clerical help is not possible. What then? Volunteer service may be the only possibility—services provided by children and parents. Both groups, in most instances, are eager to help. Many gifted children in the upper grades need opportunity to extend their experiences and to accept responsibilities for the smooth functioning of the school. Experience has shown that they can effectively do many routine jobs such as checking attendance, answering the telephone, duplicating materials for teachers, and keeping textbook or supply inventories up to date. Controls, of course, will have to be established in order that the children are not exploited, and careful cooperative planning between

teacher and principal will be required. Parents may wish to organize, so that a mother is always on duty in the health center and so that checks can be made with the home whenever absences occur. Some mothers may be competent secretaries who would like to maintain their skills, but do not wish regular employment for a few years because their children are young. If the school's needs are made known, help is likely to be forthcoming.

3. *How can the office be made more functional?* Need may be expressed for a bulletin board for teachers, individual mailboxes for each teacher, and perhaps mailboxes for each classroom if the children are encouraged to write letters to one another. Requests may be made for furniture which is comfortable for those who use the office—adults and children. Perhaps more space is needed. If so, questions regarding space utilization, as presented earlier in this chapter, will need to be considered. Perhaps better files are required, or the available files need to be placed in a more accessible, controlled area.

4. *What can be done to make the office more attractive?* Parents and children can make excellent contributions which will result in increased attractiveness of the office. Almost every parent group usually contains several women who are amateur, or perhaps even professional, interior decorators. Their suggestions should be sought. Children, too, can help by providing a continual flow of their creative art for display, by providing and caring for green plants, by keeping back issues of children's magazines available on a reading table or rack, and by accepting responsibilities for planning with the principal bulletin board displays. In many elementary schools the offices would be more attractive to children if the "counter" were lowered six or eight inches or completely removed.

Responsibility for providing an effective office is primarily vested in the principal, because the office is his base of operations. The office is likely to be a smoothly running enterprise if procedures are well established for handling routine matters, if the principal develops skills (typing, for instance) to improve his own effectiveness, if clerical personnel are carefully selected not only in terms of their skills but also in terms of their understanding of children, and if plans for handling most contingencies are made in advance of need, with the understanding that modifications will be instituted as situations require. Principals will need to press for more modern equipment, such as Dictaphones and Kardex files, and for clerical services for teachers. Modern schools cannot be effectively operated with office equipment and procedures which were outdated thirty years ago.

In many elementary schools one labor-saving device has been provided for the principal that should be carefully controlled if the morale of the staff is not to suffer and if the program of instruction is not to be interrupted frequently—the intercommunication system. Such a system is justified by principals as a “supervisory tool,” “step saver,” and “program enricher.” The use of a communication system for “listening in” to what is going on in the classroom cannot be justified. It is a wire-tapping technique, which is not fair to the teacher. Any principal who consistently uses the intercommunication system in this manner should, in the opinion of the authors, be removed from his position as a status leader, because he has lost any real possibility of providing the type of leadership needed. In some schools, because of the size of the plant, occasional use of an intercommunication system to save steps is probably justified. Cooperative planning, involving the staff, should result in mutually supported policies for the use of the system. The principal should always remember that his function is to facilitate instruction, not to interfere with it.

As the principal works to develop and maintain an effective office which supports the instructional program, the following suggestions may be found to be helpful.

1. If at all possible, employ a good secretary. Make sure that the person chosen responds well to children and parents, is patient under pressure, and handles details expeditiously. Spend the time necessary for on-the-job training.
2. Decentralize as many activities as can be effectively handled by others, but be sure that you do not overload teachers with work which interferes with teaching responsibilities.
3. Involve parents, teachers, and children in planning for an improved office, especially in terms of beauty and function.
4. Obtain the services of children and perhaps of parents for short periods during the day to perform responsible tasks. Increasingly utilize gifted children in performing tasks which require ability, application, and “uncommon” sense.
5. Work to develop skills which lighten your own administrative load and shorten the time required to perform necessary tasks, and attempt to secure equipment which will increase your effectiveness administratively.
6. Put in a good working day every day. Be in the office at least half an hour before school starts and at least thirty minutes after it closes, unless you are attending a professional or administrative meeting. Provide an example for the staff.
7. Maintain an open-door policy for parents, teachers, and children.

Warmth of personality—plain old friendliness—pays, even though it sometimes seems to take an inordinate amount of time.

8. Experiment occasionally with different office layouts. A change is appreciated by everyone.

9. Consistently evaluate, and involve others in evaluating, the services rendered by the school office.

10. Get color into the office—and order. Be unwilling to exhibit a cluttered desk or a drab and dreary dungeon as your place of work. You will sparkle more, too, if your surroundings do.

PRINCIPLES OF ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP

Responsibility for internal financial accounting, for securing, storing, and distributing supplies, for maintaining and improving the school plant, and for providing an effective office are centered in the principal. These responsibilities cannot be summarily delegated to others, but neither can the tasks be effectively performed without the cooperative effort of all those persons who make up the school family. Effective management results from the application of effective leadership techniques. Principals will strive, therefore, to create conditions which will provide orderly control without stifling initiative and individuality. Principles such as those which follow stem from the discussions presented in this section. A principal may evaluate his own effectiveness by using the principles as evaluative criteria.

1. *Involve the total staff in the determination of administrative policies for the school.* A caution: Don't overload the staff with needless meetings about details. Handle details in ways which seem to be in consonance with policies previously agreed upon by the staff.

2. *Encourage parents to participate in school activities.* Give them many opportunities to express their hopes for their children, their conceptions of a good program, and their suggestions for improving administrative procedures.

3. *Attempt to secure the very best persons for every school position, and then surround them with security and challenge.* Provide on-the-job training for all employed persons. Expect qualified persons to accept responsibilities—delegate them.

4. *To handle administrative concerns, establish routines which are effective yet flexible.* Attempt to provide procedures which will lighten, rather than increase, the load of the classroom teachers. Remember that different routines may be desirable for different groups within the school. Consistently support and demonstrate efficiency, promptness, effective pre-planning, accuracy, and neatness.

5. *To the extent possible, secure extra help—secretaries, parents, or pupils—for routine administrative tasks.* A majority of a principal's time should be spent helping the professional staff improve classroom instruction, not on routine administrative duties.

6. *Provide a total environment that supports your conception of administrative leadership.* Plant, equipment, supplies, office, and staff are the environment. Be a good example yourself.

7. *Experiment with new or modified ways of performing administrative duties.* Be willing to return to prior practices when experimental procedures seem to be less effective. The old adage—nothing ventured, nothing gained—applies in administration.

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDY

1. Mr. Rogers, principal of Goodview School, kept a record for a week of the ways he used his time. He was astounded at the short intervals he had between interruptions, and began to understand why at the end of the day he was completely exhausted without having accomplished much of the work that was piled on his desk. He decided that a careful time schedule would improve the situation; so he posted the following notice on the teachers' bulletin board. "In an attempt to get more work done each day, I'd like to try to block out for work on reports and records the two-hour period from 9:30 to 11:30. This seems to be the time when I'm called on least by parents, pupils, and teachers. Will you please let me know how you feel about this experiment and about the hours selected? I'd like to have you attempt to assume that I'm simply not around (unless an emergency arises, of course) at whatever periods seem best." What do you think of the plan being proposed by Mr. Rogers? What else might he do? What other ways might he have approached the problem?

2. Although you are not particularly interested in having one installed, the superintendent is equipping all elementary schools during the summer months with intercommunication systems. This means that next fall you will have a new gadget in your office. Since most of the staff is returning and since none has had recent experience with such equipment, you believe that some orientation to the educational possibilities of the system is needed. How would you proceed? What ways of using an intercommunication system to support the educational program can you list?

3. For a number of years Mr. Hawthorne has been turning in accurate reports of attendance to the central administrative office. Although he feels that attendance is good in his school, he is always surprised to learn that all the other schools in the district have better attendance. He asks another principal how he has improved attendance so markedly in a two-year period and is rather subtly told that you do it by "improving your bookkeeping." What should Mr. Hawthorne do? Report the other principal to the superintendent? Begin to "improve" his own bookkeeping procedures? Continue to furnish accurate data to the central office and work to

improve attendance through an improved program of instruction? Some combination of these? Nothing?

4. For a number of years Miss English has been concerned about some of the money-raising activities sponsored by the P.T.A.; yet the funds from these activities have resulted in a good library, adequate audio-visual equipment for the school (including radios, record players, recorders, filmstrip projectors, and motion picture projectors), and comfortable furniture in the teachers' lounge. Miss English has especially worried about the annual bingo night, which has become a community tradition and which supplies over half of the annual budget. She doesn't think it is right for the school or the P.T.A. to sponsor such activities, but she knows that children will have less adequate educational provisions if bingo is eliminated. What should she do? How should she proceed?

5. List in two columns the pros and cons which you can identify concerning school stores. Are your lists equally long? Does the weight of evidence clearly indicate one position or the other? If so, how would you proceed to inaugurate or to close a store? What problems might have to be faced?

6. Although each teacher in Greene School had agreed at the beginning of the year to limit his use of art supplies to an amount equal to a proportionate share of the school's allotment, you discover that by the end of the first semester Miss Florid's group has already consumed more than her annual share of tempera paint and colored construction paper. Most of the other teachers have not used half their quota. What would you do?

7. You are a new principal in a building which has been served by the same custodian for fifteen years. The first time you walk into the building you detect immediately that toilet rooms are not clean. You find that nothing is structurally wrong with the equipment, but that it has been neglected for many years. You are amazed that maintenance crews have not done something about it during the summer months, yet only a week remains before school is scheduled to open. What would you do? Contact the superintendent and ask to have the custodian replaced with a competent person? Tell the custodian kindly but firmly that the rooms are to be spotless within forty-eight hours? Demonstrate for him proper techniques for effective, sanitary cleaning? Accept the inevitable and learn to live with the situation?

8. The telephone in the school office rings and rings and rings. Many of the calls are from parents with messages for children: "Tell John to go home with Mary this afternoon—I'll be at my bridge club"; "Please remind Larry to wear his rubbers because it's raining"; "Make sure that Don remembers not to catch the bus"; "Has Lora found her father's fountain pen?" You'd like to tear the telephone off the wall, but that doesn't seem like the best solution. You'd like to tell the parents you won't deliver such messages, but that doesn't seem right either. What can principals do? What should they do? Develop a list of possibilities.

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

American Association of School Administrators, *American School Buildings*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1949.

- American School and University*. New York: American School Publishing Corp. Annual Yearbooks.
- Association for Childhood Education International, *Better School Homes for Children*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1946.
- , *Portfolio of Materials for Work and Play*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1945.
- Audio-Visual Education Association of California, *Setting Up Your Audio-Visual Education Program*. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1949.
- Caudill, W. W., *Space for Teaching*. College Station, Tex.: Texas Engineering Experiment Station, 1941.
- Dale, Edgar, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*. New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1946.
- Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, *Planning Schools for Use of Audio-Visual Materials*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1954.
- Division of Surveys and Field Services, *Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials*. Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers. Revised periodically.
- East, Marjorie, *Display for Learning*. New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1952.
- Engelhardt, N. L., N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., and S. Leggett, *Planning Elementary School Buildings*. New York: F. W. Dodge Corp., 1953.
- Kinder, James S., *Audio-Visual Materials and Techniques*. New York: American Book Company, 1950.
- Linn, H. H., L. C. Helm, and K. P. Grabarkeiwicz, *The School Custodian's House-keeping Handbook*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948.
- National Council of Chief State School Officers, *Planning Rural Community School Buildings*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.
- National Council on School House Construction, *Guide for Planning School Plants*. Nashville, Tenn.: The Council, 1953.
- Perkins, L. B., and W. D. Cocking, *Schools*. New York: Reinhold Publishing Corp., 1949.
- Schoonmaker, Francis A., *A Manual for Maids in Schools and Colleges*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950.
- U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, U.S. Office of Education, *Designing Elementary Classrooms*. Special Publication No. 1; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1953.
- Willey, Roy DeVerl, and Helen Ann Young, *Radio in Elementary Education*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Company, 1948.
- Wilson, R. E., *Flexible Classrooms*. Detroit, Mich.: The Carter Company, 1953.
- Wittich, Walter A., and Charles F. Schuller, *Audio-Visual Materials: Their Nature and Use*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953.

Decision-making has many dimensions. In community life, it is the dynamic interaction of community forces in the formulation of social policy. It engages the personal values and beliefs of individual citizens, it motivates groups to exert pressures, it ultimately determines community aspirations and achievements. A community leader must possess keen insights into this complex milieu. He must have a positive conception of what a community can be in a democratic society. He must understand the role of leadership in such a community and know how this role is related to those of other residents and community institutions.

.

Among the strongest forces the school administrator will encounter will be the conception of his role held by the people whom he is to serve. His own convictions about his place will at least momentarily assume secondary importance, for the citizens will judge him, not in terms of what he believes about himself, but in terms of what they believe he should do. Any violation of community concepts of role, whether intentional or in ignorance, always creates difficulty.

.

The role of the leader as we have shown it is not a glamorous one. It requires strong dedication to the common good, unrelenting labor, and an unselfishness that places the welfare of others on a par with the leader's own welfare. The person who finds himself in a leader's role cannot escape the responsibilities described in the preceding pages. But the stakes are high. The very future of the American way of life depends on community leaders, and on those in high places in state, national, and international councils who will come from their ranks.

—Truman M. Pierce, Edward C. Merrill, Jr., Craig Wilson, and Ralph B. Kimbrough, *Community Leadership for Public Education* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955), pp. 223, 269, 298. Copyright, 1955, by Prentice-Hall, Inc., and reprinted by permission.

Section E

THE EFFECTIVE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL SERVES AS A KEY COMMUNITY AND PROFESSIONAL LEADER

The principal of a modern elementary school is now at the forefront of school-community relations. He can contribute immeasurably to developing public understanding of the school and its program, to developing an instructional program related to community living and needs, to leadership for community betterment, and to leadership in improvement of his own profession. As an educational leader, he must exercise his talents to promote closer school-community relations, stimulate and encourage increased teacher understanding and participation in school-community relations, and possess a vision of what the school can become as a means for improvement of living in American communities.

In this section major attention is devoted to reasons for increasing interest in school-community relations, to the major concepts of the community school, and to ways principals may exercise leadership in the community-centered school. The purpose of this section is to stimulate principals and those planning to become principals to develop a workable philosophy of their own and to offer suggestions as to how the philosophy may be implemented in the elementary school. The final chapter of the section and of the book issues a challenge to principals of elementary schools to recognize their great heritage, to be outstanding leaders in their profession, and to lend support to the continued professional growth of the elementary school principalship.

The Elementary School as a Community Institution

THE NATURE of the leadership role of the elementary school principal is vitally affected by the nature of the community in which the school exists. Urban conditions may affect this role quite differently from conditions in rural communities. Differences in socioeconomic background, historical traditions, geographic location, and degrees of civic awareness inevitably are reflected to a great extent in the school itself. Likewise, the conceptions of the school's responsibilities that motivate educational personnel are quite influential in their effects on the program of the school. Thus the educational leader must consider the appropriate relation of the school to the community, if his leadership is to be even moderately effective.

In recent years there has arisen an increasing concern for developing an understanding of the proper role of the school in the community. Clearly the terrific impact of the Great Depression of the early 1930's produced a searching attitude relative to the purposes the school should assume. Great misgivings arose among educators and citizens in general as to whether the school was actually geared to the needs of young people. Many educators became almost disillusioned regarding accomplishments of the school and campaigned for a much more direct and forceful role of the school in effecting social change. Countless publications, studies, experiments, and projects added to this increasing awareness of the need for rethinking the appropriate purposes of the school. Diligent searches were made, also, for schools which illustrated in action what schools could accomplish by way of improving community living. This upsurge of in-

terest has continued into the current decade, and teachers are still searching for the proper relation of the school to its community.¹

Traditionally it has been assumed that the basic concepts of democracy were nurtured in small communities and rural surroundings. It has often been contended, in fact, that democracy could not originate in urban centers and that the values found in urban culture had their origin in villages and hamlets across the land. Thus these traditions have become at least nostalgically important in political campaigns, literature, and even in devotion to the "little red schoolhouse."² Undoubtedly there is a basis for the conviction that democracy thrives best in situations in which human relations are personalized, although a strong case could be made also for the contention that urban centers produce new ideas and ways of adjusting the nature of democracy to social change. Whatever the merit of these positions, it appears plausible to maintain that the continuously increasing urban centers have contributed to the insistence that schools should be, in reality, community centers. Consequently, in the past two decades there has developed increasingly a theory that schools in urban as well as rural centers must assist greatly in helping children come to grips with the social realities in their lives. This contention is especially pertinent now, since urbanization and industrialization have so greatly altered methods of production and distribution of goods and services. The impact of urbanization is undoubtedly a permanent influence and will continue to have a bearing on the relation of schools to their communities. Beers has observed forcefully how urbanization is affecting our thinking about American communities.

The metropolis rises with increasing prominence against the social landscape of western civilization, especially in the United States. The penetration of metropolitan influence into all the recesses of social structure and the diffusion of those ways of life which it nurtures confound the efforts of anyone who seeks to identify "the community" in American life.

Various positions of reason and sentiment may be taken in viewing this population trend and the probabilities of its termination or continuance. Its present

¹ Among the many publications contributing to this reassessment, the following are illustrative: George S. Counts, *Dare the School Build a New Social Order?* (New York: John Day Co., Inc., 1932); Educational Policies Commission, *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1937), and *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938); Samuel Everett, ed., *The Community School* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1938); and Paul R. Hanna and others, *Youth Serves the Community* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1936).

² For an interesting sidelight on this contention, see Richard B. Morris, "Where Success Begins," *Saturday Review* (November 21), 1953, p. 15.

and foreseeable impacts will continue to rest heavily against the shape and function of all our personal, social, and cultural systems.³

Another factor which has contributed greatly toward the reassessment of the school's role in the community has been the gradual emergence of an American educational philosophy. Early in this century, psychological research began gradually to weaken the hold of faculty psychology and to pave the way for newer psychologies of learning. The philosophy of experimentalism likewise centered attention on the need for critical analysis of the functions of the school. The linking of these two forces prepared the way for actual experimentation with the curriculum and various aspects of school organization and administration. The child-centered school was frequently mentioned in educational literature, especially in the decade of the 1920's, to be superseded by concern for a socially oriented school. All these various emphases contributed toward a widening recognition of the need for relating the program of the school to the community served.

One other observation should be made relative to the reassessment of social functions of schools. This observation pertains to the whole question of the proper relation of those who support schools to those who administer and teach in them. Subsequent to the establishment and consolidation of our public school system in the nineteenth century, there appeared a tendency for some schools to drift away from the public which supported them and to crystallize patterns of organization and teaching. Perhaps adversity and crisis tend to draw educators and the public closer together, with a resultant spirit of pioneering and adventuring. In addition to this condition, the gradual evolution of a "science" of education suggested to many educators that education is an objective and scientific business in which parents could participate less effectively than previously. Thus schools and their communities unfortunately tended to become increasingly separate, thereby contributing toward a recognition by leaders with foresight that such conditions would inevitably weaken the school itself.

This gradual separation of the school from its community has provided a fertile field for enemies and critics of public education. This statement does not imply that the lack of close relation between schools and communities caused vigorous attacks on public schools, but that greater receptivity existed on the part of the public for stories of failure, inadequacy, and mismanagement. Too often, educational leaders have

³ Howard W. Beers, "American Communities," in National Society for the Study of Education, *The Community School* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1953), Part II, p. 15.

worked for community understanding during campaigns for financial support and then have relaxed into complacency with the successful completion of such campaigns. Consequently in many communities across the land, feelings of mistrust, suspicion, and hostility have been engendered, and the school has drifted even further into isolation from its community. It should be observed forcefully that criticism of schools and their programs is desirable, and honest constructive criticism is to be sought. There is little doubt that a rethinking of the appropriate relation of the school to its community will help greatly to mobilize support for a strong system of public education. Caswell has suggested that the current period may be one of great reappraisal of public education and that the issues should be clearly understood by all.

It is my conviction that a reappraisal is in progress of some of the most basic aspects of our public-school system. Action may well be taken in meeting the issues currently raised that would divert our schools from the course of development pursued during the past century. That course of development has resulted in a distinctive American educational system. Many of the most pointed criticisms are directed toward those qualities that make it unique.

At no time since the days of Horace Mann and Henry Barnard, in my opinion, has there been such widespread consideration of basic educational issues. This period will involve fateful educational decisions which might well result in major changes in the course of our educational development.⁴

These are some of the major reasons for the expanding interest in the relation of the school to the community served. The next section analyzes the major community school concepts influencing the development of American elementary schools.

CONCEPTS OF THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

The principal of an elementary school is faced with the problem of relating his own day-to-day leadership to his concept of how the school should be related to the community. It is admittedly difficult to formulate a definition of a community school that is acceptable to all teachers or to assess in practice what may be labeled a community school program. The authors of this volume make no claims to advocacy of any particular viewpoint along this line; they do contend that any principal with vision must himself, in consultation with teachers, formulate and act upon some basic convictions. This discussion is therefore intended to serve as a stimulus for such self-analysis and as source material for further study.

One of the first real difficulties the principal confronts is how to formulate a workable guide as to what the community itself embraces. The

⁴ Hollis L. Caswell, "The Great Reappraisal of Public Education," *NEA Journal*, 42:99-103 (February), 1953.

community in a large city will be greatly different from the village community, just as the consolidated or union school community will differ from the community served by a neighborhood school. The term "community" has been used also to refer to more or less homogeneous economic groups, to a specific geographic area, to subgroupings within a political unit, to people of like religious faith, and to groups with similar economic or other viewpoints. Thus we see how difficult it becomes for any person to define precisely the community served by a particular school. Many children in one school may actually possess more of a "community interest" with children in a nearby school than with other children in their own school. The only feasible solution to such dilemmas on the part of the principal seems to be a clear recognition of this difficulty of definition and then an identification of the *communities* served by the school. It has been suggested by one sociologist that we should recognize this difficulty and define community in a three-dimensional sense.⁵ The community then becomes a cone with height and depth as well as concentric circles, usually used to represent interrelations in American communities. This visualization is undoubtedly more accurate than the conventional acceptance of a single community concept.

Another problem which the educational leader must recognize is that seldom, if ever, do all persons in a community agree unanimously on goals. This condition exists likewise in attitudes toward the school's purposes. Some educational goals are accepted with practically unanimous assent, although even in these instances great disagreement may exist with respect to methods of attaining the goals. There are many other goals which principals and teachers may accept as desirable, but which may be acceptable to only a minority of parents. Thus the principal is confronted with choices as to his leadership responsibilities and, at times, with the necessity for careful calculation as to the desirability of advocating certain educational goals.

This discussion points up briefly only a few of the many facets of the problems confronted in local leadership situations. It should be reiterated that schools do exist by virtue of public support and that eventually schools become what a majority of the people decide they should become. But an educational leader has an inescapable responsibility to relate his activities to community needs and problems, however narrowly or broadly such needs may be defined. Educational statesmanship demands vision as to what a school and community may become. The inherent difficulties in definition of the community and lack of unanimity of opinion as to acceptable goals too often eventuate in laissez-faire leadership. The prin-

⁵ Beers, "American Communities," *loc. cit.*, p. 27.

principal who wishes to be an able leader must certainly assess the desires and ambitions of school patrons, but he also should realize that he and teachers can help in redirecting these desires and ambitions. What at first may be thought to be hostility to educational goals, in reality, may be lack of understanding or even complacency. The educational statesman at times must be willing and even eager to stand on principles and take calculated risks in helping others get a vision of what a community-centered school can become.

Even casual observers of the American educational scene recognize the frequent disparity between theoretical consideration of what the school should be in a community and realistic appraisal of what most schools are in fact. The same condition will usually prevail with any dynamic school principal; he generally has a vision for his own school which may become a reality in the future. In practice, then, the relations of schools to their communities vary tremendously. For purposes of simple analysis, the following section suggests the three major concepts of school-community orientation that are commonly found in practice.

The School as a Community

One level of community-school functioning has been to conceive the school itself as a community. This concept implies that the school should provide firsthand experiences in cooperative living, self-direction, and group action. Provision of such experiences for children eventually may include all the children, teachers, administrators, and staff of the school. Pupil-teacher planning, planning among grade groups, and all-school activities afford experiences in community living deemed highly desirable. Children may thus become citizens in a community and thereby develop the skills of group living so imperative for successful community action. This approach to the school as a community is illustrated in the following account of one teacher:

The organization of the classroom with boys and girls as officers is made an enjoyable and profitable activity. Certain officers, such as president, vice-president, council member, secretary, and treasurer are elected by the class. Miscellaneous titles, appropriate to the situation, may be used; such as mayor, clerk of council, alderman, etc., when a class is studying Community Life.

A period for "getting acquainted," teacher with children, and children with each other, is needed. Points of view are exchanged, interests are talked over, and some drill on parliamentary usage is given. The time needed for this period varies with the group. Before the election of officers, the pupils, with teacher guidance, suggest qualifications for officials, such as a good citizenship record in the past, fair scholarship, ability to lead and talk well, and a working knowledge of parliamentary law. The duties of each office are made clear.

Certain helpers are chosen by the president or teacher to establish the routine

of the classroom and to make it a pleasant place in which to live. Appointment as a helper is often used as a means of helping a child. Children like to do things, and having the responsibility of a task is a valuable educative experience. Hence, we try to have all of the children take part in some way. These helpers make reports at each class meeting. The following helpers are usually chosen: host and hostess, doctor and nurse, attendance card officer, fire chief, librarian, program and morning exercises chairman, lunch helpers, housekeepers, and helpers to look after supplies, plants and flower arrangements.

Regular class meetings are held once a week. In the beginning much help and guidance is needed in conducting a meeting according to simple parliamentary procedure. The secretary's work is difficult for small children, and sometimes it is wise to have one or two assistants to aid in writing the minutes. The first part of the meeting is devoted to reports from council representatives and class business, and the latter part given over to a program.

Called meetings are held when the need for such arises, because problems in citizenship or a request for money cannot wait for a regular meeting.⁶

This description highlights methods used by countless classroom teachers to implement the concept of the classroom itself as a community. In many other schools this concept is broadened to encompass all-school activities such as assembly programs, open-house days for parents, school fairs, and operation of the library. Some schools have set up school councils in an effort to broaden further the self-governing experiences afforded children. Although many educators would not accept this approach as exemplifying community-centered school programs, there is nevertheless a contribution which this practice makes. It may be contended, with much supporting evidence, that a broader concept of community-oriented education is not likely to be operative unless this first concept is acted upon.

The Community as a Source of Instructional Materials and Problems

Another concept of the community-centered school program is that the community outside the school should serve as a materials laboratory. In practice this concept is found in many schools. Teachers and children relate a study of history to local history or places of historical interest, geographic experiences are enriched through observation of local phenomena, fields and streams become science laboratories, and public institutions make the study of government realistic. In addition to these activities, many schools likewise utilize the services of local persons who, through lectures, discussions, or demonstrations, can contribute measurably to the learning experiences of children. The following account of one school group shows how this concept of the relation of the school to the community may be implemented.

⁶ Waters Avenue School, *School Life in Midget Savannah* (Savannah, Ga.: The School Staff, 1939), pp. 22-23.

We consult with people in the community with firsthand knowledge of some country, industry, art or hobby. We invite them to the school or make telephone appointments to go to see them. One group of eight-year-olds sent a committee to Mayor Theodore Lockwood's office to ask him some questions to which they had not been able to find the answers. Another committee visited the Health Department to watch a bacteria count made of the milk we drink in school lunch period. Another wrote letters to the Street Department and got an unplowed short-cut to school cleared of snow.⁷

The School as an Agency of Social Action

The third concept of the community-centered school places emphasis on social action functions. Improvement of living for all members of the community is an accepted responsibility, which is met in diverse ways. Acceptance of such responsibilities necessitates commitment by the school to clearly recognized social functions and to cooperation with the entire community in achieving the purposes of the school. This concept of the proper relation of the school to the community obligates school personnel to participate with children in such activities as beautifying school grounds, helping children and adults learn how to farm more effectively, attacking specific health problems in the community, providing or helping to provide improved recreation facilities, meeting nutrition needs in the community, participating in reforestation programs, helping develop better racial and religious understanding, and participating in programs for aid to children in war-devastated areas. These activities place the school in the forefront in community improvement programs and bring children into direct participation in the affairs of community living. This approach to community-centered education assigns the school a strategic role in community life and thereby enhances its potentialities for affecting directly all community activities and the lives of the citizens. The following accounts of schools that have assumed this social responsibility illustrate how schools work in numerous areas of activity.

A big problem in our community is rowdiness and destruction in a new public park. I have tried to develop civic pride in the park by taking my class there when the weather was warm and letting the children enjoy the recreational facilities. Today an article appeared in the local newspaper about more destruction of some young trees. We talked this over and decided that we might help by planting a tree in the park on Arbor Day. Of course, we'll have to get permission to do this. How are we to get the money? It was decided that we could make a newspaper collection and sell it. We'll start our collection tomorrow.⁸

⁷ Mildred March, "We Practice Being Citizens," *Schools and Better Living*, 5:4 (November), 1951.

⁸ Bertha Rubel, in Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Toward Better Teaching* (1949 Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1949), pp. 200-201.

Another account discloses how children may participate directly in efforts at economic improvement.

After our community survey revealed that the parents raised no poultry in spite of the large tracts of land they owned, various committees of adults and children got their heads together and worked out plans that have accomplished wonders.

We purchased two dozen baby chicks and five ducks. We were able to raise eighteen of the chicks and the five ducks as our first project. The children took turns caring for them. The committee contacted the poultry stores, feed stores, seed stores, and poultry raisers for information. They purchased medicines recommended for various diseases and they bought water purifiers. We mimeographed booklets giving details of poultry-raising, written on a very easy reading level, and sent them to the parents. We organized a poultry club and parents as well as former students were included.

Parents came to seek more information. They began purchasing chicks in large numbers. There were times when we had to help them with poultry problems that were simple but to them were very difficult. Usually the school children were able to solve these problems.

The children had unusual experiences with handling money during their project for they sold their eggs and chickens. Our children have to make their own money or they have none.

Every family now has chickens and the parents sell eggs on the market. There is a continuous project being carried on in the school throughout the term. We have begun keeping hens for laying purposes, the eggs being used in the school cafeteria. More and better housing for flocks will be continued at school and in the community.⁹

These three concepts of the community-centered school embrace the practices most educators contend are desirable in schools for children. The concepts do not necessarily represent a hierarchy of values, except in relation to one's own particular value judgments. It should be evident also that these concepts are not discrete or mutually exclusive, since variations of all three concepts are usually found in most elementary schools. In general the development of the school program does not progress sequentially from the first concept to the third concept. It is generally true, however, that activities which fit into the pattern described as the first concept tend to precede the social action concept, because action in the larger group is often unlikely unless the skills for action in a smaller group have been learned first. The forward-looking principal will not be primarily concerned with specific classification of his school, but rather with fostering community-school relations in whatever ways are appropriate.

⁹ Aldonia C. Joyner, in *Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, op. cit.*, pp. 211-212.

WAYS OF WORKING FOR IMPROVED RELATIONS
BETWEEN SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

As a leader in the local community, the elementary school principal has definite responsibilities for being alert to the need for school-community understanding. He also must have sufficient foresight to visualize what his school can do to contribute most appropriately to community improvement. No blueprint can be prescribed as a sure means by which the principal can evaluate his role as a leader in school-community activities. The level of education of the staff, the general nature of goals held by teachers, the nature of the community, and the values placed on education by citizens in general will directly condition the nature of the leadership role of the principal. The following suggestions are offered for the dual purpose of stimulating the principal to recognize his responsibilities and of affording some guidance on how to meet these responsibilities.

Being a Community Leader

The previous discussion of leadership principles (Chapter 1) suggests that the educational leader must relate his activities to his community. Unfortunately, many teachers and principals in communities throughout the country must first combat a stereotyped concept of the teacher's role and personality. "Meeting a payroll" is often asserted to be the criterion of success; educators are accused too often of not having met this test and are consequently assumed to be unrealistic visionaries. Many average community citizens likewise assume that the hours children are in school constitute the work week of principals and teachers and that therefore the position of teacher is a relatively easy job. It is fortunately true that these stereotypes are fading in importance and that teachers generally are being recognized for their real worth. Nevertheless the principal must recognize this potential hazard and demonstrate that teachers are to be respected as community leaders with outstanding contributions to make toward community betterment.

How can the principal demonstrate his desire, willingness, and ability to be a community leader? Perhaps the most significant single contribution the principal can make in this direction is through establishing personal relations with parents of school children, various recognized community leaders, and citizens in general. The size of the school and of the community will affect the scope of these relations, which are essential in any school community. To achieve these relations, the principal must deliberately seek opportunities for becoming known as an individual. The school leader should give attention first to his own qualities, which may engender warm responses. Although apparently not significant, many per-

sonal aspects may vitally affect the principal's ability in establishing these relations. Such personal considerations as dress, general appearance, speech, language habits, friendliness or lack of it, and optimism or pessimism may often determine acceptance or rejection by others.

These personal aspects quite obviously do not, and should not, determine the real ability of the principal to secure acceptance in his community. A more basic consideration is the general knowledge, interest, and ability of the principal as a person. Inability of many educators to talk with others on subjects unrelated to teaching exhibits a quality not conducive to community acceptance. The wide-awake principal will be able to discuss world affairs, national issues, economic conditions, local government, and hundreds of other subjects. He does not have to be a specialist in many fields, but neither should he be proudly ignorant of areas other than education. Any principal in any community should quickly become acquainted with the major patterns of living in his community and should seek continually to broaden his information base. As was suggested earlier, the principal should read a daily newspaper regularly, a weekly news magazine, and at least one or two other serious journals outside education. In addition, he should delve into fields other than education through occasional reading of currently popular books, general publications in other fields, or specialized reading according to his own peculiar interests. Only indifference and lack of motivation can account for the failure of principals to broaden their own backgrounds from year to year. Failure to recognize this responsibility results not only in failure to achieve community leadership, but also in eventual failure to advance educationally.

In addition to this breadth of interest and background, the principal should be a "can do" individual in other respects. Any alert person exhibits some active interests apart from his own field. Such activities may be of a hundred different kinds, but there should be some such activities. The outstanding principals known by these authors are individuals who fish, hunt, have woodworking interests, swim, paint, play bridge, farm, carve, or engage in other activities. These "do" interests help greatly in establishing the principal in the community as a person with interests sufficiently broad to afford mutual interests with parents and laymen in general.

Another relatively simple guide to initiation and development of relations with the community is that of asking and listening. One of the finest arts the principal can develop is how to ask intelligent questions. This skill is tremendously helpful in developing good community relations and in expanding the information the principal possesses regarding his community. Countless opportunities are available for seeking informa-

tion on community history, economic status, techniques of economic production, leadership structure, local government, and a host of other pertinent subjects. Inquiries of such nature not only produce valuable information but also help in establishing understanding between school and community. The level of interest and support of schools is oftentimes as much a result of the personal respect the community has for teachers and other educational personnel as it is of an abstract faith in the value of education.

Various community organizations, through which teachers and principals may contribute directly to community betterment, exist in practically all American communities. The principal in particular should evaluate thoughtfully his opportunities for membership in civic and service clubs, church and church groups, the chamber of commerce, welfare agencies, youth-serving groups, fraternal groups, and special interest groups of various kinds. Care must always be exercised that he does not become a member of too many groups and thereby dissipate his energies. In some communities it is wise also to consider whether joining one group and not another will tend unduly to alienate certain groups in the community. When these precautions have been exercised, it is unquestionably wise for the principal to become affiliated with at least one or two organized groups within his community. Such participation provides another avenue for developing understanding of the community and its needs and for developing, in turn, favorable attitudes toward the school and its program.

These suggestions regarding participation in and acceptance by local communities are given with the purpose of helping in the establishment of improved school-community relations. Such improvement is reflected in the quality of experiences provided for boys and girls. The principal should maintain at all times integrity, sincerity, and serious purpose in working toward acceptance as a community leader. At no time should he attempt to gain acceptance superficially, nor should he create the impression of merely trying to become a "success." Serious attention to gaining a status as a community leader, however, is a prerequisite to successful leadership in improvement of school-community relations. It may well be added that participation in community affairs and efforts at self-improvement likewise contribute to the development of the principal as an individual.

Working with Teachers in Developing Understanding of the Community and Its Needs

One of the very important facts which the principal should always bear in mind is that teachers themselves will eventually determine what the

school does with respect to service in the community. The principal therefore should be especially sensitive to what teachers think, believe, and act upon in this respect. Obviously there will not, and should not, be unanimous viewpoints on all matters between a principal and the staff; in fact, some diversity of opinion is wholesome and challenging. At the same time, however, wide differences of opinion in this area may result in ineffective leadership and in doubt and hesitation on the part of parents and others. The principal must assess carefully the responsibilities he assumes in his leadership of the school staff in line with the principles enumerated in Chapter 1.

There is no predetermined method the principal can employ in working with teachers to assure a broader understanding of school-community relations. He must, of course, apply the principles of leadership previously discussed if he wishes to effect improvement. One approach, which some principals use, is to challenge teachers directly to consider as a group the philosophical aspects of school-community relations. If this approach is acceptable to the group, serious study of professional literature in the field, accounts of what other schools are doing, visits to other schools, and some form of self-evaluation usually will follow. Such self-study may extend over one or two years or may merge gradually with other related professional study groups. This approach has the advantages of involving the whole group and of assuring some common understandings. As a study of such nature progresses, it is highly desirable that direct application be made to the local school and that some general guide be formulated as a basis for local evaluation. Any carefully prepared guide will be of assistance in this kind of professional study, if it is thoughtfully applied to local conditions. The following guide is illustrative of the type which can be advantageously used by school groups. This guide suggests also a rating for the local school.

1	3	5
Very slightly; value to a small extent	About average for localities we know	Fully, very greatly, outstanding in this respect

1. What is our community? To what extent is it a community? What can be done to make it more of a functioning community rather than just a geographical area? Do the people actually work together, show awareness of the need for common action, communicate accurately?

2. Is the community enjoying the maximum standards of living possible with available economic and human resources?

3. Do all the members of this community enjoy living in it?

4. Do young people growing up in the community desire to stay? What percentage do stay? What percentage could find a place? How can we help persons decide?

5. Do all persons living in the community feel wanted and necessary? What differences are there for different age levels, sexes, races, religious and ethnic groups, status classes? Are there equal opportunities for all to learn what they need when they need it under conditions (methods, places, administrative regulations, etc.) appropriate to the needs?

6. Is there a mutually co-operative relation between the community and its regions? Are local problems seen and studied in relation to state, regional, national and international developments?

7. To what extent are the major educational problems of the community defined?

8. Is the community acquainted with educational resources inside and outside its boundaries, and is it making full use of them?

9. To what extent are the school staff members recognized and used as special resource persons?

10. Is education seen as a way of helping meet the life needs of learners, with needs defined in reference to democratic values and growth potentials?

11. Is there participation by all members of the community in the development of educational policy with appropriate consideration given to special abilities and responsibilities?

12. Is emphasis given to the use of intelligence in decision-making?

13. Is there a basis for increasing community effectiveness in the next decade?

14. Is there continuous evaluation of the educational activities in terms of improvements in the quality of living for all in the community?

15. Is there exemplification by the educational group of all those qualities stressed as important in total community action?¹⁰

In many situations the most effective leadership is realized not through direct work with a large group of teachers, but with small voluntary groups or with individuals. Many individual teachers already are doing outstanding jobs in relating teaching to the community. The principal may then function most effectively by observation, encouragement, and casual suggestion. A teacher may be working, for example, with a group of children in a study of natural resources. There already may be field trips planned by the group, and such activities should be encouraged. But the principal may propose that the group sponsor a reforestation project, help control erosion on school grounds, or participate in a landscaping project. This kind of leadership can be very fruitful, but should be extended to include other teachers as well. Recognition of school-community activities by the principal may stimulate other teachers to explore new projects also. Such recognition may be made public in teacher groups, by casually suggesting that one teacher visit another, by sending a report to the school or town newspaper, or by including a notice in a professional

¹⁰ Edward G. Olsen, ed., *The Modern Community School* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1953), pp. 231-232.

bulletin circulated among all teachers. There will be times when the entire staff will need to consider seriously the proper role of the school in the community, but this step then follows casual and indirect efforts at encouragement of curriculum improvement. It is well to note here that, regardless of which methods are used with teachers, curriculum development inevitably will move forward on a broken front and that such erratic advances should not be deplored, but welcomed.

Another approach, which some schools and school systems employ, is to encourage organization of voluntary groups for community study and for general improvement of education of teachers. In some school systems, for example, teachers may be employed for twelve months with summer activities carefully planned. These activities often include community study, preparation of a guide to the local community, or development of resource units. Other schools use from two or three days to one week for preschool conferences which may contribute toward greater insight into local problems and needs.

One of the most challenging uses of this approach to teacher understanding has been employed in the Baltimore school system. This plan is carefully organized into a four-year sequence of activities, participation in which is voluntary. The first year of this program is concerned directly with understanding the community. Visits to various churches, analysis of census data, studies of population trends, and visits to underprivileged areas of the city afford firsthand community contacts and develop a sensitivity to some needs of the city. During the second year of the sequence, emphasis is centered on relating community resources and problems to the curriculum. Special interest groups are organized to concentrate upon special problem and curriculum areas. Groups dealing with historical resources, industry, health, and recreation continue community study and relate findings to the curriculum. During the third year, participants are requested to engage, alone or with others in the school, in an action-type project. This aspect of community participation concentrates upon significant community improvements. Improvements in recreational facilities, housing, and intergroup understanding are illustrative of the projects undertaken. During the fourth year of the sequence, emphasis is given over to individual problems in a seminar-type setting. Individual members may wish to determine community attitudes toward various agencies or subjects, investigate needs of special groups of children, or delve into recreational needs.¹¹ This four-year sequence of community-school activities can contribute immeasurably to teacher understanding. A variation of this approach could be used in any school or school system.

Another approach to understanding the community, somewhat similar

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 161-179.

to the Baltimore approach, is a community survey. The survey may be conducted by principal and teachers as a general orientation to the community or as a study of specific aspects of community life. Perhaps a word of caution should be presented at this point. The principal should recognize that a coldly objective community survey, with great arrays of statistical data, often will not generate enthusiasm for any further study of the community. It is essential to understand the purposes survey reports will serve, or they will be generally unproductive. Community surveys may be used, for example, as a means of enriching teaching, studying group behavior, identifying needs elementary schools can serve, projecting educational needs, or promoting personal growth in community understanding. If there is acceptance of purposes to be served, a community survey may be quite productive. The group may formulate its own guide to community study, or it may employ some published guide used in other communities.¹² If the survey is comprehensive, pertinent information should be assembled on most of the following subjects:

- historical background of the community,
- recreational facilities and needs,
- population by age groups for from twenty to thirty years,
- public and private welfare agencies,
- income level of the community,
- religious resources available,
- housing and housing needs,
- economic opportunities and limitations,
- health facilities available and needs,
- incidence of various diseases,
- communication facilities—radio, TV, newspapers,
- size of families, extent of work by mothers, and similar data,
- governmental services,
- parks, public gardens, and other resources for beautification,
- nutritional and dietary status and needs,
- educational level of parents and community,
- types of communities within large community,
- general climate of opinion in community—optimism, indifference, pessimism, passivity, hostility,
- attitudes of community toward education, and
- nature of community leadership structure.

¹² See Department of Elementary School Principals, *How to Know and How to Use Your Community* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1942); Edward G. Olsen and others, *School and Community* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945); and Merle R. Sumption, *How to Conduct a Citizens School Survey* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1952).

How to gather information on these topics is often quite baffling. In most instances, however, much information is readily available and can be summarized fairly easily. Reports of the Bureau of the Census are valuable sources of information. The decennial census reports plus interim studies provide invaluable information on population, age distribution, and educational level. Such publications as the *World Almanac*, reports of the Public Health Service, Department of Commerce reports on business, and state and municipal yearbooks contain information of great value in community surveys. Much of the most valuable local information must be secured from local sources, such as local chamber of commerce reports, statistics from the health department, information readily available in the local agency of the Department of Agriculture, reports by welfare agencies, and local historical publications. Much of the information may be collected by means of questionnaires, interviews, and opinionnaires. Children themselves usually can provide or secure information on housing, size of family, and other similar personal matters. Attitudes toward the community and toward the school may be secured through interviews and opinionnaires.

It was suggested that most elementary school staffs probably will not wish to conduct a full-scale community survey at one time. In many schools a group of teachers may study only health conditions, for example, while another group may explore the need for recreational facilities. In other schools these surveys of specific aspects of community living may become group projects for children and teachers. This approach among older children in the elementary school is especially desirable. Over a period of a few years, studies of most subjects included in community surveys thus may be cooperatively produced. Whatever the methods employed to gain further understanding of the community, the principal must be constantly alert to the need for leadership in this area of the school program.

Encouraging the Development of a Dynamic Parent-Teacher Organization

In almost any elementary school in this country there is readily available a means of relating the school and the community and of developing mutual understanding between parents and teachers. This means is some form of parent organization, whether it be the usual P.T.A. or an unaffiliated group. Parents of children in elementary schools are vitally concerned about the welfare of their children, what they do in school, and what the school should be doing. It is therefore an abdication of responsibility for the principal to attempt to squelch parent organizations or stand in the way of their creation. There is little doubt that hundreds of school leaders would prefer not to have parent organizations in their schools or

are at best lukewarm in their support. The reasons for these conditions are difficult to assess, although there seem to be two extreme situations which lead to lack of interest. In the first extreme, the principal and his staff seem to assume that a parent organization is purely a parent organization with which the school should have as little to do as possible. In this situation teachers attend meetings perfunctorily, and programs are often meaningless and haphazard. Little of real value comes from such organizations, and the lackadaisical attitude which prevails is easily understood.

The other extreme is the organization dominated almost completely by the principal. In this group there is little teacher or parent interest, and meetings tend to be fruitless also. If this type of organization exists, you usually may expect to find great concern for money-raising activities, little participation by the large majority of members, and attendance at meetings thought of as a passive duty. Generally, too, meetings and activities tend to be held at times when fathers in particular have great difficulty in attending. Neither type of organization makes outstanding contributions to improved school-community understanding.

If a parent-teacher organization is to render the best possible service, the school principal must provide co-leadership for the group. This leadership must not result in domination, but must nevertheless be of a positive nature. It is wise for the principal and teachers as a group to consider what objectives can be best served by parent-teacher groups and how teachers may cooperate most effectively in such endeavors. Local conditions will determine how the principal can exercise his co-leadership responsibilities most effectively in this area, but the following suggestions may be helpful.

1. WORK WITH OFFICERS OF THE ASSOCIATION IN PARTICULAR AND WITH THE MEMBERSHIP IN GENERAL TO ARRIVE AT AGREEMENT REGARDING OBJECTIVES OF THE GROUP. One of the difficulties often encountered is a lack of understanding as to what are appropriate objectives. The following list of objectives illustrates what usually should be accepted by such groups.

- (a) Provide an understanding of parents' role in education of children.
- (b) Give opportunities for parents to develop better understanding of child growth and development.
- (c) Afford opportunity for discussion of curriculum changes.
- (d) Provide opportunities for parents to see work of their children.
- (e) Cooperate with teachers in attacking various problems, such as grading, homework, reports to parents, and so on.
- (f) Understand needs of school for financial support, buildings, equipment, and similar needs.

- (g) Provide opportunities for social relations between parents and teachers.
- (h) Support specialized school needs financially.
- (i) Provide means for parent understanding of state and national educational problems.

2. GIVE ASSISTANCE TO ASSOCIATION OFFICERS IN PROGRAM PLANNING. One of the most essential duties of the principal is to work with association officers in planning the programs for the year. The organization usually succeeds or fails at this point. Furthermore, failure to have constructive and interesting programs may result in activities often characterized as "interference." The following suggestions may help in program planning.

- (a) Plan programs that will appeal directly to parents and teachers.
- (b) Build many programs directly about the child—his interests, needs, physical changes, and so on.
- (c) Plan programs that help parents understand what the school is attempting to accomplish.
- (d) Select problems of direct concern to local parents for some programs—teaching reading, for example.
- (e) Have occasional programs in which parents discuss informally in small groups their main concerns about the school.
- (f) Provide opportunities for open discussion in connection with most programs.
- (g) Arrange the agenda for each program carefully, keep time limits, and move forward expeditiously.
- (h) Plan a published program for whole year if at all possible.
- (i) Schedule the hour of meeting so fathers as well as mothers may attend.
- (j) See that some form of evaluation of programs is attempted during each year.
- (k) Get suggestions from as many parents as possible regarding the desired nature of future programs.

3. ENCOURAGE THE ASSOCIATION TO SPONSOR PROJECTS THAT WILL INVOLVE ALL MEMBERS. Another means by which parent-teacher organizations may remain dynamic is through sponsorship of projects that can capture the interest of a majority of their members. Study groups formed on a voluntary basis are examples. Such groups may concentrate upon child study, assistance in curriculum planning, special service to the school such as help by rendering library service, assistance in field trips, production of a news bulletin, or development of a library for parents. In addition to these special projects, many associations prepare handbooks for parents, assist

in "summer roundups" of children, sponsor social activities such as folk dancing, encourage hobby groups, assist at open-house days or nights, and render assistance in special activities, such as music, art, or dramatics.

4. RECOGNIZE THE PARENT-TEACHER ORGANIZATION AND ITS WORK PUBLICLY. The principal can contribute greatly to the success of the association through expressed appreciation for its services. Such appreciation may be shown in a variety of ways. One obvious way is expressing direct and sincere appreciation to the group itself. In addition, publications such as newsletters about school activities can be sent to the association membership, and news releases in local papers should contain information relative to the association's activities. Officers or members of the group may be invited to local faculty meetings, others may be invited to serve on special study committees of teachers, and attendance at professional state and national meetings may be encouraged. The principal should certainly be willing to work closely with a parent-teacher group and to give proper recognition for its accomplishments.

Developing Effective Methods for Keeping the Community Informed about Its Schools

The parent-teacher organization is undoubtedly a major means of informing parents about the school and its activities. This organization, however, should not be the sole method of disseminating information, since not all citizens in any community are active members. Many publications and individuals have tended in recent years to overemphasize the public relations program as a "selling" job. Undoubtedly there is some of the selling aspect in the matter of keeping a community informed. There is danger, however, in interpreting this responsibility as the job of a salesman. Education must be presented realistically, factually, and truthfully as a venture which has both successes and failures. The principal therefore should be sensitive to the proper balance to maintain regarding both accomplishments and needs. With this admonition as a guide, he then needs to survey and appraise all the media available to him for keeping the community informed.

The most immediate and, in fact, the most valuable means of informing a community about its schools—the children themselves—is often overlooked. It is unquestionably true that the attitudes parents and others have toward schools are very much affected by the attitudes of children. How easy it is to share a child's distaste, admiration, distrust, or affection for a teacher! Despite protestations to the contrary, any parent tends to wonder if, after all, his child is not correct in whatever evaluation of the teacher he may make. So it is very important that the principal and teachers recognize that a good school program develops fine attitudes to-

ward the school, and that personal relations with parents create attitudes which are in turn shared and extended broadly. The following excerpt from *It Starts in the Classroom* shows how important are our day-to-day activities:

After an exasperating day a teacher, with her spirits frayed and flagging, was visited by the mother of one of her pupils. Her patience exhausted, the teacher lit into the mother for the boy's conduct and attitude, and scolded her for "coming here and insinuating that I have not done the best any teacher could do for a child of such limited abilities." Five parents (four of whom had *not* visited the teacher) later complained to the principal and a board member regarding the way parents and children were treated by the teachers (plural) at the school.

.

What is taught in the classroom is the foundation of education and public relations. Fortunately, and inescapably, the curriculum that produces good educational results also produces positive public relations—ultimately. But some interpretive technics along the way may smooth out many bumpy spots on the road to pleasant relationships with pupils and parents and to community understanding.¹³

The principal should be competent in the use of these "interpretive technics" in his own community. Most media of communication are readily available to disseminate information about schools. Newspapers, radio, and television are effective media for school use, and newspapers and radio in particular are desirous of obtaining information about local school activities. The principal should learn how to prepare effective news accounts for the various media.¹⁴ School and class newspapers are also quite important media for interpreting the school to parents.

Cooperating with Other Agencies in Service to Children

Educational leaders must recognize realistically that there are many other community agencies devoted to the welfare of children. It is not the function of the school to usurp the responsibilities of these agencies or to duplicate their services. Rather, the principal should encourage reliance upon these agencies as community resources and should exhibit willingness to cooperate with them. The number and scope of such agencies will vary greatly, but may include such groups as the local health department, the agriculture and home demonstration departments, the various welfare agencies, the Boy and Girl Scouts, the Junior Red Cross,

¹³ National School Public Relations Association, *It Starts in the Classroom* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1951), pp. 7, 13.

¹⁴ For valuable assistance in how to use these communication media, see Benjamin Fine, *Educational Publicity* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1943); and Stewart Harrol, *Tested Public Relations for Schools* (Norman, Okla.: University of Oklahoma Press, 1952).

and church groups. One service which could be rendered by the principal is leadership in developing a comprehensive list of such agencies together with their major functions. This list can be of invaluable assistance to teachers as they plan their classroom activities.

One problem that often confronts principals is how to handle requests of various groups for financial assistance through drives. Active cooperation in each individual financial campaign can become burdensome and even disruptive of the school program. Some principals therefore limit the drives to a few designated organizations and exclude all others. In other schools the Community Chest idea has been adopted, with only one financial campaign each year. In general, the one organized drive seems preferable, but allocation of funds to various groups should then be carefully planned and publicized. It is generally wise to have participation of teachers, parents, and children in organizing and conducting the drive and in subsequently allocating the money collected thereby. Many boards of education have established policies regarding money-raising drives at school. It is obvious that the principal should be cognizant of any such policies. In certain instances it may be desirable for the principal to ask the superintendent to discuss the problem with the board, if no prior decision has been made.

Fostering Direct Service to the Community by Teachers and Pupils

To many educators, direct participation in community functions by the school and service to the community are characteristic of a community-centered school. Any elementary school can be of some direct service to its community and should strive to determine in what ways it can increase such services. Perhaps the most obvious method of service is making available the plant and facilities for community functions. Such use may include community recreation, special adult groups, community lectures, forums and discussions, and various cultural events. Care must be exercised in permitting use of school facilities by groups not associated with the school, but the school should certainly look upon its plant and facilities as a means for enrichment of community living. Most school boards have established policies concerning the use of buildings by community groups.

The kind of direct service to the community that requires the most ingenuity and imagination also offers the greatest potential for community improvement. Such service involves firsthand participation by children and teachers in efforts at social action. School activity of this nature is focused upon service to the total social group of which the school is a part and is designed to encourage action by others in the direction of community betterment. If an elementary school is to extend its influence in the

direction of cooperative action, the principal must lend his support to this approach. If such action is to be successful, the school program has to be flexible; there must be a conviction that such activities are significant; and the relation of these projects to the broad purposes of the school must be clearly understood. It is also important that planning take into account the actual social needs of the community, the extent to which such needs are being met by existing community agencies, and the readiness of the community for meeting the identified needs.

The scope of activities in which children may participate is practically limitless. In any community the school can identify some activities and projects to help meet community needs. The principal, teachers, and children must therefore be selective and should choose activities in the light of criteria considered valid. The following questions may assist the school in deciding upon appropriate social action experiences for children:

1. Is the identified need a persistent one in the community? Does the need permeate community life?
2. Does the social need affect directly the lives of the children?
3. Is the recognized need clearly related to a broad area of social needs in general?
4. Does any other community agency devote major attention to meeting this need?
5. Will experiences designed to help meet the need be significant for children?
6. Are planned activities appropriate to the maturity level of the children involved?
7. Are instructional materials available to help in developing pupil activity?
8. Is the teacher sufficiently competent to provide guidance in developing the project?
9. Does the contemplated activity develop naturally from other activities in progress?
10. Does the activity contribute to a balance in the school program?
11. Can community understanding and support be obtained in this particular activity?
12. Does the proposed project offer opportunity for many learning experiences?

Application of these or other similar criteria to prospective activities of a social action nature will contribute greatly to orderly curriculum development. These criteria should not frighten teachers away from planning activities closely related to community needs, but should provide a

more intelligent approach to the problems involved. The typical elementary school affords opportunities for significant learning experiences characterized by social action. Landscaping school grounds and homes in the community, painting a home as a community example, checking erosion on school grounds, planning and caring for a school garden, engaging in nutrition study through a school lunchroom, sponsoring hobby groups for adults and children, engaging in 4-H activities, participating in safety campaigns—these and countless other activities illustrate what can be accomplished by elementary schools. The following account is an illustration of how one elementary school contributed directly to improving the quality of living in the total community:

With the interest of the director of the School of Education and the assistance of one of the faculty members and his classes, the miserably desolate school building has been changed in its entirety. The original large, unattractive assembly room was made into two rooms—one a small game room for the school children, out-of-school youth, and adults; and the other an attractive classroom. The children contributed to the beauty of the place by making pictures, curtains, chairs, easels, and by repairing and painting desks, chairs, and tables. The old classroom was converted into a workshop. Shrubbery was found in the woods and transplanted in the yard.

To improve the hygienic features of the school and surroundings, the problem of drinking water had to be attacked. Children made a table to hold the improvised fountain (a nail keg with a spigot). The boys made a shelf to hold individual drinking glasses.

The garden fences and the pigpen were repaired and the garden and the pig became two projects of the school and community.

The beautification program did not stop with the school building and grounds. Ideas were carried home and a cleanup campaign was started. The community was divided into areas with the larger girls serving as chairmen of districts. In addition each of the larger girls chose a room at home for a special project. Each girl planned and decorated her room. The boys noted needed repairs and were responsible for making them.¹⁵

Sharing Leadership in School-Community Relations with the Entire Staff

It has been emphasized strongly in previous chapters that a characteristic of good leadership is the ability to share leadership with others. This characteristic is particularly applicable to the principal's leadership in school-community relations. Many recognized community schools of the past decade have ceased to be recognized as such, subsequent to the departure of the principal. Naturally any good leader makes a great impact on the school and its community, but any good leader likewise is adept at encouraging development of leadership in others. The effective school

¹⁵ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *op. cit.*, p. 210.

principal will keep the entire staff informed of his activities, work with teachers to secure recognition for them, seek out competence in other teachers, follow the leadership of teachers when appropriate, and avoid using leadership as a means of self-aggrandizement and personal advancement. The only known way to assure continued school-community relations of a high order is for the entire staff to share leadership responsibilities.

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS: A CONTINUING CHALLENGE

In this chapter the authors have attempted to show how important good school-community relations are to the school system as a whole. They have pointed out some reasons for increasing interest in community-centered schools, described the most prevalent concepts of the community school, and offered suggestions on how the principal may meet his leadership obligations. It is the authors' conviction that the real tests of leadership are to be found in local communities throughout the land and that the ability to provide vision, skill, and insight at the community level is a prerequisite to sound educational leadership. The local community is the "firing line," the testing ground, the crucible for new ideas, the laboratory for testing the asserted functions of the school. No greater contribution can be made by educational leaders than the contribution to improvement of living in thousands of communities through the program of the school. Advice once given a newspaper editor applies with equal force to the principal of the elementary school.

"You can't do anything on the grand scale," he said. "But when this [World War II] comes to an end, you can work again for your own people in your own town. It isn't national leaders we need so much as men of good will in each of the little towns of America. So try to keep Greenville a decent place by being a correct citizen yourself. The total of all the Greenvilles will make the kind of country we want or don't want."¹⁶

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDY

1. The Faculty of Mountain View School devoted several professional meetings to a discussion of how to develop improved school-community relations and of what was already being done in this respect. During the discussion two or three teachers insisted continually that the community school concept is provincial in nature and may lead to narrowly isolationist views on the part of the children. It

¹⁶ Hodding Carter, *Where Main Street Meets the River* (New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1953), p. 78.

was further pointed out that large numbers of the children would not remain in the community as adults. As the principal of the school, how would you answer such queries? How would you lead the discussion of such questions?

2. In the community served by Cloverdale School, citizens display considerable division of opinion on most social issues. One group feels industrialization should be encouraged, whereas other groups prefer to keep the community primarily rural and residential. One group is convinced a community hospital is needed, while others know such a project would fail. The same division of opinion often extends to the school program. Certain groups feel that the three R's are already neglected, while others support activities by children in the community. As a principal, how can you function in this situation? Should you adopt a "wait and see" attitude? Should you try to be the coordinating influence? Should you first encourage study of the situation by yourself and the teachers? Should you be bold and attempt to move forward regardless of lack of agreement on objectives?

3. The parent-teacher organization in Jefferson School has practically ceased to exist. Teachers generally take the attitude that the organization is made up primarily of "grippers" and that the school would function more effectively without any organization. Most of the parents are passive toward the organization, although a few parents place blame on the school and assert that the school does not want cooperation from the community. As a new principal in the school, what should be your course of action? Should you go along for some time, or should you begin immediately to work toward a more vigorous organization? Should you work first with teachers or with parents? What would you visualize as the sequence of steps to be pursued?

4. In the community served by the Nebo Elementary School, one religious group has no place in which to hold services. This group has requested permission to hold Sunday services in the school building. The local board of education has no policy covering such requests, and you are requested to submit a recommended policy to the superintendent for presentation to the board of education. What additional facts will you need? Would you discuss the question with the teachers? The P.T.A.? What principles would you apply to such a situation? How would you present the policy in writing? Should the policy cover just this request or requests from all similar groups? Should the policy cover use of school buildings by all community groups?

5. John Sullivan, a new elementary school principal, has just arrived in a community of 5,000 and wishes to become accepted as a community leader. This community has four service clubs, the usual governmental agencies, three women's clubs, an active P.T.A., and a community council. What guides can you give for helping the new principal assume a community leadership role? Should every principal join one or two local organizations? Should the principal speak to all community groups as requested? Should the principal be active in party politics? Should the principal join or remain neutral in "reform" movements? Should the principal speak out publicly on issues of community concern? Should the principal be vigorously related to all activities of his church? Should the principal actively participate in all community financial drives? What general guides are most important if the principal is to become a valuable and recognized community leader?

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL READINGS

- American Association of School Administrators, *Public Relations for America's Schools*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1950.
- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Building Public Confidence in the Schools*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1949.
- , *Toward Better Teaching*. 1949 Yearbook; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1949.
- Brownell, Baker, *The Human Community*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950.
- Clapp, Elsie R., *Community Schools in Action*. New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1940.
- Colcord, Joanna C., *Your Community: Its Provision for Health, Education, Safety, and Welfare*. 3rd ed., rev. by Donald S. Howard; New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947.
- Department of Elementary School Principals, *Community Living in the Elementary School*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1945.
- , *How to Know and How to Use Your Community*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1942.
- , *The Public and the Elementary School*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1949.
- Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938.
- , *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1937.
- Everett, Samuel, ed., *The Community School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1938.
- Fine, Benjamin, *Educational Publicity*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1943.
- Hand, Harold C., *What People Think about Their Schools*. Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Company, 1948.
- Hanna, Paul R., and others, *Youth Serves the Community*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1936.
- Harrol, Stewart, *Patterns of Publicity Copy*. Norman, Okla.: University of Oklahoma Press, 1950.
- , *Tested Public Relations for Schools*. Norman, Okla.: University of Oklahoma Press, 1952.
- Hayes, Wayland J., *The Small Community Looks Ahead*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1947.
- Lippit, Ronald, *Training in Community Relations*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.
- National Society for the Study of Education, *The Community School*. Fifty-second Yearbook; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Part II.
- Ogden, Jean, and Jess Ogden, *Small Communities in Action*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.
- Olsen, Edward G., ed., *The Modern Community School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1953.

- Olsen, Edward G., and others, *School and Community*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945.
- Olson, Clara M., and Norman D. Fletcher, *Learn and Live*. New York: Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, Inc., 1946.
- Payne, Stanley R., *The Art of Asking Questions*. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1951.
- Poston, Richard W., *Small Town Renaissance*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950.
- Saunders, Irwin T., *Making Good Communities Better*. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky Press, 1950.
- Sumption, Merle R., *How to Conduct a Citizens School Survey*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952.

I 3~

The Challenge to Educational Leadership

THE PRECEDING CHAPTERS have outlined leadership responsibilities that will appear overwhelming to many elementary school principals. There will be an initial reaction on the part of some readers to pooh-pooh many of the suggestions as being impractical and theoretical. It is possible that such reactions will come most violently from those principals whose deepest insecurities stem directly from their leadership role and their felt inadequacies in relation to it. Reactions of this kind are perfectly normal. When we feel threatened, when we stand unclothed, we seek to distract the attention of our supposed attacker by drawing his gaze elsewhere. Unfortunately, we too often succeed only in distracting our own attention. We fail to look steadily at the real source of our discomfort and, instead, bemuse ourselves with self-created sideshows. Or, perhaps we attack our attacker. This, too, is normal. But, often, we go beyond the point of self-preservation to struggle with self-created issues that may be intriguing, but perhaps not pertinent to the problems before us. Men who joust with windmills have little time or energy for the real struggles of life.

Many of us when presented with realities we hate to recognize, let alone face, look for a scapegoat. With some, scapegoating has been elevated to a fine art. The absence of secretarial help and the pressure of record-keeping have long been distractors. Parental interference and the continual jangling of the telephone also are favorites. Of more recent vintage is the unpreparedness of so many classroom teachers. These are real obstacles to leadership, to be sure. But it is so easy to inflate them until they obscure the real problem—our failure to face up to ourselves.

Another tack, especially when the case for change is a strong one, is to point out the danger of setting a precedent. What is proposed is perfectly defensible, but if we do it, somebody at some time in some place may use it against us, because a precedent has been set. The result of such an approach is that nothing is attempted that has not been done before.

Then, when we've exhausted all of our excuses, depleted our supply of scapegoats, and finally are forced to face the issue, we can always postpone action (indefinitely, of course) by saying, "Yes, it's a good idea, but we're not quite ready for it." For some people, the time is never ripe. The truth is that there seldom is a perfect time for anything. But there usually is a best time. The effective leader helps to recognize it when it arrives, and then to push to the utmost the advantage it offers.

These self-created limitations bear further analysis. In addition to them, there are some formidable obstacles created by the forces of our times and the very real demands of the principalship.

SO AS NOT TO DECEIVE OURSELVES

Scapegoating

Each of us in his daily work is surrounded by a host of minor and major irritations that appear to be especially created to bedevil us. Children have a way of doing what we would rather they didn't do. Their timing isn't too good either; they need us at the worst possible moments. Teachers have a way of being a nuisance, too. They need books and chalk, films and recordings. Their problems often are unusual—they don't fit into a pattern and they won't wait. And parents are worst of all. Any school person knows that rainy days are hardest on the nerves, and so why do parents have to call up to check on Tommy's wet feet or to tell Susie that Aunt Jane will come by to pick her up? Keep on with this sort of thinking long enough and life will become one big ulcerated irritation.

Let's face it. So long as we have parents, there will be children. So long as we have children, there will be schools. So long as we have schools, there will be teachers. And so long as there are parents, children, and teachers, there will be problems—problems that won't wait on our personal time schedules. Without these people and the problems they create there would be no elementary school principals.

It is a responsibility of the principal to keep these problems at a minimum. It is also his responsibility to take care of those that do arise expeditiously and fairly. These are important responsibilities, but it must be admitted that they are somewhat peripheral. They are a sort of residue stemming from the productivity of human beings engaged in a common

enterprise. They demand skill and ingenuity (such as are described in Section D), but certainly no more than are required for teaching a class of thirty-five energetic fifth-grade children. If these two responsibilities are no greater and no more demanding than classroom teaching, on what grounds do we justify greater material rewards for the elementary school principal?

The answer lies in the third major responsibility—leadership. Leadership is not residual. It is a force that leads, guides, and creates. (See Chapter 1.) It is the responsibility that raises the elementary school principalship to a position of unusual demands, the principal to a level of special recognition. To complain that the first two responsibilities are unduly demanding is to admit natural human frailty. To forego the third in deference to the other two is to admit defeat and endanger the status of the elementary school principalship. Part-time teaching responsibilities, the lack of secretarial help, heavy burdens imposed by the central office, and inadequate working facilities are formidable obstacles to leadership. They can become so burdensome, in spite of all efforts to overcome them, that effective leadership is impossible. But just as soon as this point is reached, the principal is receiving an inflated salary for what amounts to secretarial and janitorial services. If he is honest, he will recognize the situation for what it is and either present his case to the superintendent for remedial action or seek employment that does not prostitute his talents.

These are harsh words, but the professional status of the elementary school principalship is threatened every time overpaid clerks mask behind the accoutrements of the position. Both the writers and the readers know far too many such people. The principals either do not realize or do not care that their indifference and complacency increase the difficulty of raising the principalship to its deserved place of recognition and reward. Any principal who spends his entire day in the routine tasks of administration and management is grossly overpaid. Any principal who is providing real leadership to children, parents, and teachers alike, who is helping these groups to envision personal potentials not previously perceived is inadequately paid, no matter what his salary may be. He will not be adequately paid until more of his number accept the challenge of creative leadership.

The net effect of scapegoating, then—of taking the blame away from personal inertia and attaching it to routine and regimen—is diminution of the position, its status and its rewards. Unfortunately, the effects are in no way discriminatory. They are as injurious to those who would make the elementary school principalship a lifelong challenge to personal

achievement and satisfaction as they are to those who would keep it within the confines of administrative routine. The principalship will be what the elementary school principal would have it become.

The Dangerous Precedent and Let Well Enough Alone

The elementary school principal who feels overly burdened with routine is not likely to encourage new enterprises. More projects mean more details to be handled; more details mean further curtailment of freedom and heavier burdens to carry. Advancing age (not necessarily chronological) sometimes presents a formidable deterrent to exploration.

Men of age object too much, consult too long, adventure too little, repent too soon, and seldom drive business home to the full period, but content themselves with a mediocrity of success.¹

Instead of encouraging youth, of using their experience to guide youth, some principals feel threatened in its presence and compelled to block it in its endeavors.

Young men are fitter to invent than to judge, fitter for execution than for counsel, and fitter for new projects than for settled business; for the experience of age in things that fall within the compass of it, directeth them; but in new things abuseth them.²

One deadly abuse of authority in the face of a new idea or suggestion is to cite the dangers of establishing a precedent that may be used by others later on. "No, you had better not take your class in to town to see a movie on school time. I realize it's an educational movie that fits into your social studies program, but first thing you know we'll have all the teachers wanting to take their children to movies." What a colossal lack of faith in people! What pitiful personal inadequacy! What narrow, twisted, confused thinking! In response to the suggestion that parents help plan the report card they are to receive, hundreds of principals have been heard to say to their teachers, "Better leave the parents out of this. Next thing you know they'll be running the show!"

People who think like this live a life of self-imprisonment. The door to freedom is open to them, but they dare not walk through. They might set a precedent!

Many readers who are young at heart will recall incidents of almost unbearable frustration in their lives when someone in authority said to them, "When I was your age I tried just exactly what you suggest, but a wise old friend soon put me straight. I suggest you just let well enough

¹ Francis Bacon, in his essay, "Of Youth and Age."

² *Ibid.*

alone." How much less sickness, unhappiness, and discord there might be in the world if fewer had heeded the counsel, "Let well enough alone"! The truth is that the things really worth doing are things that have not been done before. The fact that others have tried and failed merely attests to the unusual challenge of the opportunity.

Most people come to a period in their lives when they hesitate to experiment, to explore new avenues, to strike out in new directions. This period comes much too soon for some; they lose the desire to travel before they have been anywhere. To others it comes late in life, after years filled with the satisfactions of accomplishment. When those who would lead reach the plateau, whether early or late, one crucial obligation is demanded of their leadership. They must open doors to those who neither fear setting a precedent nor want to let well enough alone. Authority that bars doors to the young, the eager, and the hopeful is a deadly thing. It maims or kills all that it touches. Leadership that re-creates itself through stimulating and challenging others is a blessed thing. It is the strongest single guarantee that "well enough" will be better in the future because someone dared to set a precedent.

The Time Is Not Ripe

Were you ever on a committee that presented a report only to be told that "people aren't ready for this yet"? Perhaps you had prepared a new report card that wasn't acceptable to the superintendent. Did you feel encouraged to accept such responsibilities in the future? Or, perhaps your suggestion was greeted with, "That is a good idea, and we should think about it some time. I'll keep it in mind." How did you react? If you can remember how you felt, you'll know how your teachers feel every time you squelch one of their ideas with the old time-is-not-ripe routine.

Tomatoes ripen under advantageous conditions of soil, sun, and water. Sometimes, nature provides all of these in correct proportions and timing. But the plants still will be choked out by the weeds. Sometimes, the struggle is much more difficult. The soil must be enriched and the plants watered by hand. Ideas, in many ways, are like plants. Under proper conditions they take root and flourish. At times the conditions are just right, and little fostering is necessary. At other times the soil must be fertilized and carefully cultivated over long periods of time.

The wise farmer knows the best soil conditions and the correct amounts of sun, water, and fertilizer for the plant he is to grow. The wise leader, too, knows when the time is best and the conditions conducive to new ideas. But he doesn't stand around bemoaning lack of readiness or falling back upon this lack as an excuse for inertia. He begins to prepare his ground and select his seed. The statement, "The time is not ripe," never

is an appropriate reply to a worthy suggestion unless it is followed immediately by "but let's get busy to see what can be done to get ready." Parents won't be any more ready for a new report card or a bond issue next year than they are this year unless they are involved now in the problems and the possible solutions. Teachers won't be any more likely to accept the idea of pupil-teacher planning next year unless they are exposed to the idea this year. Readiness is a valid educational concept. But readiness can be conditioned through direct attack, consciously planned and executed.

It legitimately can be argued that there are good and bad times to act. The road to progress is strewn with the bodies of those whose timing was bad. But lying beside them are at least as many carcasses of those who did not act at all. It is impossible to say whether progress has been set back more by acting at the wrong time than by not acting at all. Shakespeare's "tide in the affairs of men" comes to mind when we think about catching just the right moment for decisive action.

Timing is an elusive concept. It may well be the single, most important leadership principle—the principle upon which both success and failure depend. It has been little described or discussed in educational literature. How does one acquire a keen sense of timing? Is it educable? Can it be evaluated? Does one ever know when the time is ripe? How does he know?

The principle of timing is a subtle one. Victims of poor timing frequently are quite unaware of an act's untimeliness. Principal A returns to school in September, after six weeks at summer session, fully convinced that planning with his faculty is the road to better days. He calls his faculty members together and exhorts them to take a greater part in the policy-making affairs of the school. But the teachers are accustomed to a previous pattern of principal domination and are quite unready for—and perhaps even distrustful of—broad-scale involvement in such planning. They resent what appears to be the principal's failure to assume responsibility and are lethargic in accepting the challenge. Bitter and disillusioned, the principal decides that the professor (who had ten years of successful school administration behind him) is an impractical dreamer. Never facing up to the real source of his difficulty, Principal A resolves to have nothing more to do with such nonsense and becomes a more determined autocrat.

Principal B has been concerned for years about the desirability of his teachers' assuming greater responsibility for running the school. His thinking was reinforced by a professor at summer school who made some specific suggestions for proceeding. Now, back at school, Principal B looks for opportunities. The program of playground supervision always has been worked out by the principals—past and present. In October, Prin-

Principal B comes down with the flu and must stay home for several days. During his absence, the playground supervision schedule breaks down, to the dissatisfaction of all concerned. Learning of this upon his return, Principal B brings the matter before the teachers, pointing out the past folly of his ways and the importance of things running smoothly during his absence. He places the blame squarely upon himself and then proposes that the entire faculty work out another plan. The teachers do an excellent job of planning and implementing a program far superior to what previously existed. Several months later, a similar opportunity arises and, once again, the teachers develop a successful plan. Little by little, success after success, the teachers increase their confidence in assuming responsibility.

The beginning point might have been an incident in pupil behavior, the need to improve library utilization, a question about record-keeping. The alert principal will recognize the opportunity if he is first aware of the general need and if he has thought through some promising ways of proceeding. The more he knows about his teachers and their past experiences, the more solid the base from which he proceeds. Timing is educable. In essence, it is the unique blending of knowledge from which procedure can be estimated and outcomes predicted with personal qualities of tact, patience, fortitude, and vision.

A good ball player makes the most difficult catch look easy. With the crack of bat against ball, he's off in the right direction. At just the correct moment, he turns and the ball drops into his glove. It looks so simple! But behind that one catch are hours upon hours of running and reaching, stopping and turning, catching and dropping. Part of what he needed was God-given. He was able to see, to hear, to run, to reach. The rest had been learned.

Timing in the principalship is the result of hard work. Again, the basic ingredients were God-given. Then, the successful principal made the most of everything he had. Watching him today can be deceiving. His easy manner, his sure touch, his choice of the important over the unimportant—all of these hide the scars of error and miscalculation, the sorrows of defeat and the joys of success, the planning, reading, and thinking, the night work, and the productive summer sessions. The successful principal, whoever he may be, has developed a good sense of timing. He makes the difficult catches look easy.

IN RECOGNITION OF SOME REAL OBSTACLES

Preceding pages have been devoted to elaborating the fact that we frequently are our own worst enemies. Preoccupied with rationalizing our shortcomings and burdened with our inefficient handling of routine,

we often lose sight of or have little energy for some very real problems that threaten not merely the status of the elementary school principalship but also the progress of education in America. Let us examine just a few of these in the pages that follow.

Shortage of Persons Prepared for the Principalship

There is a dearth of educational statesmen in America. South, north, east, west—new elementary school buildings rise on every hand. There simply are not enough competent, well-qualified men and women ready to step into these positions. There are bodies ready to fall into them, to be sure. Too many will lie where they fall—filling the jobs, but not the position of the elementary school principalship. There are some excellent people, of course, ready to meet the strongest demands of creative leadership. Their readiness is not always visible in the kind and length of formal preparation they have received. It is safe to assume, nevertheless, that a person with high potential will be better with special training and with a previous background of teaching in the elementary school.

A study of the present scene in regard to principals' backgrounds of experience and formal preparation is revealing. The choice of the elementary school principalship as a career apparently came late. This generalization is supported by the findings of Berry³ and Norton⁴ in Texas. Berry reported only 5 per cent of 418 principals and Norton only 10 per cent of 212 elementary school principals as having chosen the elementary school principalship as a career by the time they were seniors in college. In Berry's study only 23 per cent of the group and in Norton's only 40 per cent made the choice while working for the master's degree. Obviously, then, an overwhelmingly large proportion of these principals did not actively seek to secure the kind of preparation considered most desirable for their future vocation. On the positive side, it may be argued that most principals initially went into educational work because of a strong desire to teach and not with administration as the goal.

The studies of Berry and Norton show further that many of the principals studied came into their present positions through channels other than elementary school teaching. Only 32 per cent of Berry's group of

³ L. A. Berry, "The Vocational Careers of Elementary School Principals" (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation; Austin, Tex.: University of Texas, 1952).

⁴ Maurice S. Norton, "The Vocational Careers and Preparation of Beginning Elementary School Principals in Texas" (Unpublished M.Ed. thesis; Austin, Tex.: The University of Texas, 1952).

Both of the above studies are reported by L. A. Berry and Henry J. Otto, "The Vocational Careers of Elementary School Principals," *Elementary School Journal*, 54:278-284 (January), 1954.

418 had had any previous experience in the elementary school. Norton's study revealed that 37.2 per cent of 212 came directly from teaching positions in the elementary school, and another 12.2 per cent had at one time held such positions. Undoubtedly, many of our elementary school principals have little in the way either of academic preparation or experience to equip them for understanding the functions and problems of the elementary school.

Teachers resent the fact that so many of the principals with whom they must work did not come up out of the ranks. They tend to be suspicious of ideas—however intrinsically good these may be—that they know are not backed by tests of experience. Furthermore, principals whose background of preparation and experience is inadequate lack confidence, however sure of themselves they may appear to be. They are reluctant to exert supervisory leadership and hesitant to pursue curriculum revision. The entire elementary school program is shackled when the principal's feelings of inadequacy reduce him to inertia. The shortage of administrative leadership, although much less heralded than is the shortage of elementary school teachers, is at least as detrimental to progress in the field.

Pupil Enrollment, Teacher Supply, and Classroom Crowding

Past experience with predicting pupil enrollment and teacher supply teaches the need for caution. Wartime predictions of postwar enrollment proved to be grossly in error. It would be convenient, now, to relax in the thought that post-mid-century predictions also are in error and the situation is not so grim as these predictions indicate. To so relax would be folly. Language seems so inadequate in trying to strike home the seriousness of the situation now and for years to come.⁵ One of the most dramatic expressions of it comes from T. M. Stinnett:

Currently, every twelve seconds an increase of one occurs in the population of the United States. . . . We have an increase of 7,200 each day of the year. Stop and consider that for a moment. That means an increased burden for our schools each 24 hours of 7,200 additional children. If we were to assume that these children could not be absorbed in existing facilities, it would require construction of 240 new classrooms every day of the year, in terms of an enrollment of thirty per classroom, and there would be the need for 240 new teachers every day of the year, to staff these classrooms. . . . We must construct something like from 50 to 60 thousand classrooms each year. I am told that in the city of Los Angeles alone, if

⁵ Estimates made in 1953 predicted an increase from 23,347,000 children in elementary schools that year to 29,716,000 in 1959, a net increase of about 7,000,000. Information obtained from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Population Estimates* ("Current Population Reports," Series P-25 No. 85; Washington, D.C.: The Bureau, December, 1953).

they met their needs, they would have to construct and open for occupancy each Monday morning throughout the school year, a new school with a 500 pupil capacity.⁶

Two hundred and forty new classrooms per day certainly require 240 new teachers per day. As obvious as the need for them is the fact that we are not getting them and, furthermore, that we are not likely to get them in numbers approaching this figure in the years ahead.

In 1955, a total of 35,278 four-year trained elementary school teaching candidates was prepared, a figure representing a drop of 1,607 from the previous year. That same year, of 3,037 men and 14,790 women who graduated from preparation programs in elementary education in 1954 (from an incomplete national survey), 65 per cent of the men and 82 per cent of the women were in the classroom. At the same time, an estimated 85,000 elementary school teachers were needed to handle replacement and expanding enrollment demands, without allowing for the need to relieve crowding and replace the untrained. The nation's schools absorbed, in 1953-1954, the largest one-year increase on record, and it was estimated that one million new pupils would enter the elementary school each September for at least five more years.⁷

The obvious result of more and more children, combined with an insufficient number of teachers and classrooms, is that individual class enrollment averages keep climbing. The Association for Childhood Education International, in its 1953-55 *Plan of Action for Children*, recommended twenty-five children as the maximum number per teacher in the elementary school. But, in 1952-1953, 90.1 per cent of 3,417,623 elementary school pupils in 107,015 classrooms of 526 districts surveyed were in classes of more than twenty-five pupils each; 68.9 per cent in classes of more than thirty; 33.2 per cent in classes of more than thirty-five; 8.8 per cent in classes of more than forty; and 1.5 per cent in classes of more than forty-five.⁸ The statistics for large cities in that year were even worse.

The A.C.E.I. *Plan of Action* further recommended 40 square feet of floor space for each elementary school child. How many classrooms housing only thirty children provide the 1,200 square feet of space this recommendation calls for? There are teachers who, in their first year of teaching, are facing forty-five children in rooms of 750 to 900 square feet!

⁶ T. M. Stinnett, "Teacher Education at the Crossroads" (Address delivered before the Southern Council on Teacher Education; Memphis, Tenn., December 2, 1953).

⁷ Statistics in this paragraph gleaned from "The 1955 Teacher Supply and Demand Report," *Journal of Teacher Education*, 6:23-71 (March), 1955.

⁸ Research Division, National Education Association, "Class Size Is Out of Hand," *NEA Journal*, 42:555-556 (December), 1953.

How long will these young people stick with it? The problems of increasing enrollment and inadequate teacher supply are compounded, then, by the added burdens being placed upon those already in the field.⁹

These problems pose a formidable array of difficulties for the elementary school principal. Large elementary schools in America face the problem of incorporating nearly a classroom of new children every Monday morning. Others are plagued with both increasing enrollments and transitory school population. Some lose most of their teachers each year and must employ a new staff. New teachers must be brought in on short notice throughout the year. How does one build staff unity and morale under such conditions?

Principals, aware of the increasing burdens carried by teachers, hesitate to involve them in faculty meetings, curriculum committees, and other time-consuming activities. And yet, faculty unity and well-planned programs are essential, if the stresses and strains of crowding, migratory student bodies and faculty turnover are to be borne with fortitude and some degree of equanimity. Enterprising principals, seeking to assure top-flight instruction, are stopped cold when teachers say to them, "That might be all right for twenty-five children, but how can one be expected to do that with forty?" But again, the only hope of doing an effective job with such numbers is through increased teacher effectiveness. Teaching forty children may call for new techniques, rather than more effort with old ones.

Continuity in program is enhanced when new teachers find a structure that has been worked through by those who preceded them. Beginning with the existing structure, they maintain their morale by changing and adapting this framework to meet current situations. New personnel are absorbed easily, because they find not only something to guide their initial behavior but also the opportunity to become part of a team endeavoring to improve the conditions under which they work. It is difficult enough for elementary schools to withstand the shock of large and shifting pupil populations, crowded classrooms, and changing teacher personnel when policies have been carefully thought through and are constantly under study. But it is impossible for schools to move steadily forward when every teacher works in his own little cell, struggling alone with the pressing educational problems of our time. It is the job of the

⁹ See John I. Goodlad, "Room to Live and Learn: Class Size and Room Space as Factors in the Learning-Teaching Process," *Childhood Education*, 30:355-361 (April), 1954. See also, in the same issue, the interesting anecdotal accounts of what crowding does as reported in thirty localities. Much of the material in this issue is pertinent to the present discussion.

elementary school principal to lead his faculty in the development and continual re-examination of a pattern of working agreements, within which all may find the security essential to sound mental health.

Some Social Forces and Conditions

It would be inappropriate, if not impossible, to summarize all the forces and conditions in our society that have bearing upon the elementary school principalship. Several that appear particularly significant are brought forth here.

NOT ALL TEACHERS NOR ALL SEGMENTS OF AMERICAN SOCIETY REGARD TEACHING WITH THE RESPECT THAT THE PROFESSION DESERVES. The Ichabod Crane stereotype has persisted too long and has been perpetuated by radio, television, and the movies. Modern society is much concerned with modern, first-rate school buildings, improved lighting, and attractive and functional equipment. But in the face of the most critical teacher shortages, the average citizen remains relatively unconcerned about either the quality or the quantity of available teachers. The principle of getting what we are willing to pay for is blissfully ignored in regard to assuring adequate salary schedules. Regrettably, teachers have had to fight their own salary battles, and the profession has suffered from the resulting publicity. Newspaper reports of teachers' meetings suggest that salary harangues occupy the full time of those attending. Teachers in America may suffer the impoverishment, but they certainly do not enjoy the prestige of teachers in most other lands.

Teachers and principals have contributed to the creation of this state of affairs. Some have steadfastly resisted learning the lore upon which a profession and professional behavior largely depend. Some have gone so far as to ridicule the research that recent decades have produced. Teachers and administrators have been heard to boast loudly of the irrefutable value of hunch and rule of thumb in making decisions that profoundly affect the lives of people. However inadequate our present research findings may be, we must steadfastly recognize that a true profession will emerge as we are able to make more scientific decisions within a framework of humanistic insight and understanding. Those who decry the very foundations upon which their profession rests know not what they do.

More subtle, perhaps, than this question of rejection of true professional standards is the matter of self-concept. Until teachers and principals stand up and proudly announce, "I am a teacher," it is not likely that others will acclaim them. Ultimately, people usually gain the respect their tested behavior demands.

Teachers put themselves under pressure to exhibit that part of themselves which they feel is in accord with community ideals and to deny other parts from

which they feel they could gain satisfaction. The internal pressure is itself a source of dissatisfaction. This accounts for some rather strange behavior from teachers on vacation away from the school's environment. At such times many will deny that they are teachers or, if "trapped" into an admission, will feel very ill at ease.¹⁰

The personal behavior of the principal goes far in setting the tone of professional self-respect. If he ignores and deplors the increasingly large body of material that is suggestive for leadership, his attitude is likely to be reflected in the attitudes of at least some of the teachers. If he—the supposed leader—develops a pattern of evading identification as a teacher, it is likely that at least a few teachers will follow suit.

To the extent that he is respected and liked the teachers will identify with him. Hence, if his emotional management of daily situations is wise, the wisdom will spread. If he keeps cheerful under attack, happy when confronting problems, unafraid of admitting mistakes, and capable of dealing with juvenile misconduct without paling with alarm or throwing a tantrum, the same qualities are bolstered in the staff. The practice-what-you-preach strategy is of paramount importance.¹¹

BECAUSE IT IS BECOMING INCREASINGLY DIFFICULT TO IDENTIFY ONE'S EMPLOYER AND BECAUSE SO MANY PRESENT DECISIONS ARE GROUP DECISIONS, THERE ARE MANY OPPORTUNITIES FOR SIDE-STEPPING MORAL RESPONSIBILITY. Have you ever, in response to your question, received the maddening answer, "I wouldn't know; I only work here"? Or, "Now, you understand, if I were doing this, I'd tell you to go ahead, but I don't make the rules." It's possible for someone to weasel around almost indefinitely behind such a breakfront. Unfortunately, such escape outlets from moral responsibility are not denied to school people. Too many principals in the elementary school can and do resort to such dodges as, "This is what the Committee decided; I simply carry out its orders," or, "The Board laid down these policies; I simply follow them." The fact that the Committee or the Board laid down the policies is not in itself necessarily bad. It is the subtle implication, rather, in "Now, mind you, I don't agree with this and I'd like to help you, but my hands are tied." Who is the Committee? Who is the Board? The fact that our employers often are impersonal and remote in modern society plays into the hands of those who would put popularity before responsibility.

In earlier times, the members of the Board or of the Committee were likely to be personally known by all concerned. Implied disrespect for the Board's decisions soon would be carried back to its members. Responsibility could not long be evaded.

It is not the matter of obedience that is open to question here. We are

¹⁰ Fritz Redl and William W. Wattenberg, *Mental Hygiene in Teaching* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1951), p. 389.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 408-409.

long past the days of exalting blind obedience. But when anyone accepts a position, his behavior is to some degree controlled by conditions governing that position. He has a right, even after accepting the position, to work steadfastly *through appropriate channels* toward changing these conditions. But until they are changed, he must abide by them. He must, in addition, put up an unbroken front in so doing. To imply by innuendo, gesture, or facial expression that these conditions are unsound or ridiculous is to side-step moral responsibility. Until the existing framework is revised, he has only two alternatives. He can adapt his behavior to the demands of the position, without apology or invidious remark. Or, he can quietly fold his tent and seek greener pastures.

THE AMERICAN PEOPLE HAVE NOT EXPRESSED, IN LUCID AND INSPIRING LANGUAGE, THE KIND OF DIRECTIVES FOR THEIR SCHOOLS THAT MAY BE TRANSLATED READILY INTO MODERN EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE. There was a time in American society when people thought they knew what their schools were for. Their wishes were rather directly expressed in such units as the dame school and the Latin grammar school. A teacher facing his class was reasonably sure of what was expected of him and felt he had a clear channel of communication with the parents. Even his disciplinary action was likely to be backed by, and perhaps even duplicated in, the home. Then, American society and the American educational system, in all of their respective ramifications, became increasingly complex. Sociology, psychology, and education arose as newly classified fields of study into human behavior, but the objects of study wouldn't stay still long enough to be measured, classified, and fully understood. Education became the laboratory of the "expert" and grew apart from the public and even, too often, from the practitioner. It became increasingly difficult for America to provide school directives, because her large core of common values splintered into several segments, each clamoring to be the spokesman for the American value system.

Secondary education probably suffered even more than elementary education. Depression days of the 1930's pushed young people (who in an earlier decade would have been adding to the family income) into schools not geared for all the children of all the people. Schools turned to emphasis upon vocational education. But many of those who cried out for vocational education in the 1930's were demanding a return to the fundamentals and to "cultural" subjects in the 1950's.

The depression 1930's and the wartime 1940's saw the elementary school taking over more functions of the home. By December, 1953, 27 per cent of married women were employed. But greater postwar (World War II) earning power made it possible for homes to provide dental facilities and

supplementary educational-type activities that gradually had become part of the school's accepted program. By the mid-1950's, the demand for emphasizing the "fundamentals" had turned vigorously upon the elementary school. It was stimulated and accompanied by books and articles in popular magazines, each writer seeking to exploit his particular explanation of "what's wrong with our schools."¹²

But, as in each of the past several decades, the outcry was of the splinter variety. It could not be said that any writer was a true spokesman of the American people. Groups of people managed to find vicarious outlet for their own fears and frustrations through one or more of these more eloquent spokesmen. But what these "spokesmen" either failed to see or then deliberately exploited was that the schools issue merely served as a focal point for man's centuries-old doubts about himself, doubts that vary in kind and intensity with the nature of the times.

At the crossroads stands the school man. What he hears, with ear turned close to the ground, is much noise—but noise unarticulated. There is little likelihood that the confusion of sound will change to clear and uniform meaning in the near future, if ever. The elementary school principal can anticipate living in an atmosphere of dispute regarding the function and relative success of the educational enterprise in which he engages. He must be aware of and encourage exploration of real differences in viewpoint and the bases for these differences. But he must be ever moving forward, with his faculty, along the road that promises the best possible educational opportunity for children, under the circumstances that exist.

THE REAL JOB AND THE PERSONAL CHALLENGE

We have seen that the job of the elementary school principal is neither clerical nor janitorial, although the principal will find himself engaging from time to time in tasks that could be so classified. Nor is it a stepping-stone to something else, although many in the past have left the principalship to engage in law, medicine, business, or commerce. It is fraught on every hand with the most formidable of obstacles, some of them rising out of the complex society in which we find ourselves, some of them self-made. The problems to be faced are such that they demand the utmost in past familiarity with them from at least the teaching point of view, professional

¹² See, for example, Arthur E. Bestor, *Educational Wastelands: The Retreat from Learning in Our Public Schools* (Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois Press, 1953); and Albert Lynd, *Quackery in the Public Schools* (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1953). For a more constructive analysis, see Paul Woodring, *Let's Talk Sense about Our Schools* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953).

preparation designed to cope with the many exigencies as they arise, depth of character, and strength of purpose.

While the picture of the elementary school principalship in America includes the mediocre, it represents also much good practice. In every section of the country, one finds men and women who are truly challenged by the creative demands of this great leadership position. Through their leadership, their schools have become sources of strength and inspiration for whole communities. Parents have been helped to see the great progress we have made in elementary education over the past decades and to visualize what could lie ahead. Teachers have been drawn into a working team striving with enthusiasm to make education exciting and challenging for themselves and deeply meaningful for their children. The problems that seem to enmesh others in a strangling web of inertia and deadening dissatisfaction are no less present in the settings where happy people work. But somehow the happy, successful ones seem to be able to take problems in stride, to draw from both their failures and their successes lessons that will be helpful in tackling the problems that still lie ahead. For principals who have helped to create settings such as these, each day is not to be dreaded for the new problems that it brings, but to be faced realistically and hopefully for the fresh living it makes possible.

Why is it that some school settings are so deadening and others so stimulating? The answer is not always clear, but there is little doubt that the elementary school principal is a significant, if not the *most* significant, influence. There must be thousands of principals who are creating each day rich living for themselves and others. These are the truly "successful" ones, regardless of their incomes or their national prestige. How does one become successful—successful in the sense of having found the good life?

One cannot buy such a life or even a small share in it. Nor can one apply a simple formula and come up with the answer. But one can observe successful principals—those whose lives are satisfying—and find some characteristics that are common to most of them. From these observations, it is safe to assume that an elementary school will be a good place for children and a good place for teachers when the principalship is filled by the man or woman for whom the following description is at least reasonably appropriate.

1. The successful principal constantly seeks greater self-understanding.¹³ It is difficult to see ourselves as we really are or even as we appear to

¹³ Hopper and Bills identified three personality types among school administrators from the standpoint of how each type accepted themselves and others. They concluded that the ideal administrator accepts his own worth and believes that other people are equally or more accepting of their worth. See Robert L. Hopper and Robert E. Bills, "What's a Good Administrator Made Of?" *School Executive*, 74:93-95 (March), 1955.

others. It is even more difficult to face up to what we see and to do something about it. But seeking answers to questions such as the following helps:

- (a) What kind of person am I and what kind of person do I want to become?
- (b) What can I do—what strengths can I use and what weaknesses can I overcome—to become this kind of person?
- (c) What kind of principal am I and what kind of principal do I want to become?
- (d) What can I do to become the kind of principal I want to be?

2. The successful principal recognizes that he has choices regarding his daily outlook and approach to problems. He can be negative, pessimistic, surly, and ill-tempered, regarding every problem as a headache and every task as a chore. Or, he can be positive, optimistic, affable, and even-tempered, facing each problem as it comes and tackling each task as part of the responsibility entrusted to him. The choice made and repeated day after day ultimately builds a pattern, and the pattern ultimately becomes a personality.

3. The successful principal recognizes that his own choices in regard to outlook profoundly affect the choices of those who work with him. In time, the choices made establish a school's tone, negative or positive, that pervades all school activity. It conditions important decisions that affect children and parents—in fact, the whole structure of the educational enterprise.

4. The successful principal has thought his job through to the point where his time priorities are clear. The elementary school principal has many demands upon his time. Faced by all of them simultaneously, he may panic or turn aimlessly from one to the other. Each day ends with little accomplishment, and profound depression sets in. Some things are more important than others. Some things can't wait, and these usually involve people very directly. The principal who learns to identify these priorities and to face them *one at a time*, putting all the others temporarily out of his mind, is on the high road to emotional well-being.

5. The successful principal has resigned himself to reality that promises to remain and is directing his efforts to changing that which needs changing and which is amenable to change. There are some things that all of us simply must learn to live with. This does not mean, however, that we turn away from tasks that are difficult. Man's really important tasks are those that are yet undone, those that have resisted man's efforts so far. The successful principal devotes his energies to tasks that are significant, but that hold some promise for accomplishment.

6. The successful principal has chosen the satisfactions that come from opening doors to others over the satisfactions that come from personal accomplishment and recognition. There are few administrative positions in American education that allow time for any other professional pursuit and, for that matter, there are few administrators who are able to divide their energies successfully between two major pursuits. The principal who derives his greatest satisfactions from writing, for example, soon may come to resent the administrative demands that block realization of these satisfactions. The successful principal realizes that his satisfactions will come through the successes and accomplishments of his faculty members and is *capable* of deriving deep satisfactions from the accomplishments of others.

7. The successful principal takes pride in his position, its demands and responsibilities, in those who work with him, and in his school. The pages of this book stress repeatedly that the elementary school principalship is a significant position, a position of even greater significance than society has attributed to it to date. Whether or not society ever will grant this full recognition depends primarily upon the quality of men and women in the position and the regard they have for it.

8. The successful principal relies on the basic tenets of democratic leadership over the power, prestige, and status of his office. It is relatively easy at least to appear democratic when the going is easy, when no major issue or personally cherished ground is at stake. The real challenge is when the going is rough, when one's innermost sanctum is threatened. It is then the real leader refuses to "pull rank" or to hide behind the supposed inviolability of the office.

9. The successful principal has so integrated the diverse array of concepts, skills, and values which lie behind action that good timing characterizes his decisions. There is no such person as a "practical school man" set apart from the theoretical principles which underly successful school administration. The successful principal solves practical problems, making the best decisions at the right time. But back of these decisions lies much attention to the myriad details and complex principles upon which sound decision making rests. Whether these facts and principles are learned through self-study or through graduate courses is immaterial. They must be learned. Good timing depends upon the combined study and experience that always lie back of decisions to act soundly.

10. The successful principal has the "near look and the far vision."¹⁴ He is able to involve people in plans that have long-term significance. But,

¹⁴ The authors give credit here to Waurine Walker, Director of Teacher Education, Texas (State) Teachers Agency, Austin, Texas, who used the phrase and expressed the idea in speeches before educational groups.

while doing so, he does not stumble over problems that are close at hand. He realizes that long-term dreams become realities only through persistent attention to the short steps along the way.

11. The successful principal likes people.

12. The successful principal recognizes that most human behavior is learned and, therefore, can be changed; is still growing, professionally and personally; and assumes that others, too, will continue to learn, changing their behavior in positive ways.

Leadership is a privilege, not a right. It must be earned and it may not be earned easily. He who learns the needed skills, develops the positive attitudes, and envisages the potentialities of the position will find in it rewards sufficient for more than one life here on this earth. To those who have found these rewards and would go on seeking, and to those who have not found but would seek, these pages are dedicated.



Index

- Abilities, differences in, 196
Absence, 208, 229, 269, 297
Academic growth, 172, 183
Accidents, 40, 59, 60
Accounting, for funds, 49, 224, 277-282
 for textbooks, 287
Accreditation, of high schools, 205
Accrediting associations, 36, 38
Achievement, grouping on basis of, 137-
 138, 143
Achievement quotient, 173
Achievement record, 187
Achievement tests, 173
Action-research techniques, 17
Activity, as basis for grouping, 196
Activity curriculum, 113
Adjustment factors, 263
Administration, democratic, 74
 legal aspects of, 47
 principal's role in, 247-250
 of the school, 247-274, 277-300
Administrative leadership, principles of,
 299-300
Admission charges, 49, 280
Adolescents, 145
Advertisements for school publications,
 238
Age factor in grouping, 192
Age groups, 152-153
Age requirement for teachers, 50
Aggressiveness, 175
Aircraft factories, 166
Alcohol, 40, 53
Amentia, 194
American democracy, 53
American education, 101
American history, 53
American Medical Association, 69, 220
Amplifiers, 144
Anecdotal records, 182, 183, 187, 268
Anti-intellectualism, 109
Apathy, professional, 69
Appeal, right of, 74
Approval, atmosphere of, 71
Arbitration, 78
Areas of living, 111, 114
Arithmetic, 110, 112, 235
 individualized instruction in, 140
 logical organization of, 112
 skill development in, 116
Art, 40, 101, 110, 112, 217
 of children, displayed in office, 297
 in departmentalization, 143
 in double-session classes, 290
 instructional materials for, 288
 parent-teacher organization assistance
 in, 324
 in platoon system, 140
 special teacher for, 88, 141, 230
 supervisors of, 227, 228
Art center, 144
Articulation between school units, 203-205
Aspirations of people for schools, 254-258
Assembly programs, 218, 236, 237, 240, 311
Association for Childhood Education In-
 ternational, 39, 342
Association for Supervision and Curricu-
 lum Development, 39, 92, 260-261
Attendance, checking of, by children, 296
 conditions leading to poor, 272
 improvement of, 271-272
Attendance records, 120, 182, 262, 269-272,
 273
Attitude development, 209
Audio-visual aids, 16, 120, 126, 227
Auditorium stage, 89, 289
Audits, 49, 279
Authority, limits of staff, 76
Autocracy, 12, 78
Autonomy of school, 42, 131, 232
 See also Local school
Ayres, Leonard P., 202
Background of children, 229
353

- Baltimore, four-year plan for community study in, 319
- Beers, Howard W., 306
- Behavior, 170, 230, 351
 in assembly programs, 237
 on bus, 218
 consistent, with democratic values, 100
 of principal, 73
 courteous, 131
 for democratic citizenship, 115
 future, 57
 in lunchroom, 224-225
 moral, 179
 "normal" patterns of, 31
 problems of, 209
 of teachers, 73
 troublesome, 201
 study of, 346
 See also Pupil conduct
- Berry, L. A., 340
- Bible reading, 40, 54
- Bicycle racks, 207
- Big brother and sister schemes in orientation, 168
- Bilingualism, 172
- Birth rate, 166
- Blind children, 194
- Bluffton, Indiana, school organization in, 140
- Board of education, 47, 137, 252
 in budget-making process, 281
 in building maintenance, 293
 general curriculum requirements set by, 53
 influence of, on curriculum, 40
 meetings of, 252
 petty cash fund provided by, 283
 policies of, on community use of school building, 326
 interpretation of, 251-254
 on money-raising activities, 326
 problems submitted to, by teachers, 74, 76
 regulations of, about collection of money, 278
 responsibility of, in employment of teachers, 51
 role of, in additions to plant, 294
 standards for teachers set by, 258
- Bonding, 49, 282
- Bondurant, Mary Katherine, 147
- Books, nonprofessional, 86
 nontextual, 233, 287
 for principals, 118
 reading of, recorded, 187
 shortage of, 233
 See also Textbooks
- Boston, departmental schools in, 137
- Bright pupils, 198
 in double-session classes, 290
 in Lancastrian movement, 137
 mental age of, 172
 under S and U marking system, 181
 textbooks from higher grades for, 125, 286
 underachievement of, 172
 See also Gifted children
- Broad fields curriculum, 112-113
- Budget, appropriation in, for books, 233
 principal and preparation of, 48, 249
 See also Accounting; Finances; Funds
- Building permits, 166
- Bulletin board, for teachers, 297
- Bullying, 175
- Bureau of the Census, 321
- Bureau of Educational Research and Service, 177
- Burk, Frederic, 139
- Bus, behavior on, 218
 as part of curriculum, 99
 patrols for, 59
- Caddo Parish, Louisiana, report cards in, 79
- Cafeteria, furniture in, 206
 manager for, 222, 278
 odor in, 225
 See also Lunchroom
- California, abrogation of immunity principle in, 55
 cumulative record of, 263-267
- California Test of Personality, 176
- Car pool, 217
- Card-type records, 268
- Caswell, Hollis L., 139, 144, 308
- Census method of identifying school beginners, 166
- Central administration, 248
 in budget-making process, 281
 in plant improvement, 293
 records determined by, 262
 in selecting teachers, 258
 semi-autonomy supported by, 75
- Cerebral palsy, 194
- Certification, 33-34, 36-37
 legal aspects of, 50
- Challenge for teachers, 90, 148
- Chamber of commerce, 127, 316
- Change, peaceful, 103
 principal's role in fostering, 253

INDEX

- Characteristics of good leaders (*see* Leader[s])
- Chase, Francis S., 73, 75, 76
- Check lists in marking, 182
- Chevy Chase Country Day School, 106
- Child-centered curriculum, 113
- Child-centered schools, 106, 307
- Child growth and development, 170-171
- Child guidance clinic, 211
- Child psychologists, 211
- Child study, 81, 323
- Childhood diseases, 175
- Children, aid to, in war-devastated areas
- 312
 - attitudes of, toward visiting teachers, 230
 - availability of, for group study, 84
 - in building and equipment maintenance, 291-294
 - changing status of, 31
 - as clerical help, 296
 - in community improvement activities, 327
 - community informed by, about schools, 324
 - community living experiences for, 312
 - in community study, 321
 - in curriculum improvement, 104
 - in distribution of supplies, 285-286
 - education of, in library usage, 233
 - in identifying school beginners, 166
 - instructional materials for particular, 123
 - maladjustments of, 229
 - older, as relief for teachers, 88
 - service of, on bus, 218
 - in small schools, 145, 150
 - preschool, attitudes of, toward school, 167
 - previous school background of, 169
 - reaction of, toward separate subjects curriculum, 112
 - in school improvement, 91
 - services by, 120
 - in lunchroom, 224
 - workbooks for, 125
 - young, 149
 - in small schools, 150-151
- See also* Pupils
- Childs, John L., 108
- Choices, ability to make, 109
- Chronological age, 144, 171
- Church, 316
- Cincinnati public schools, report from, of principal's duties, 24-25
- Citizens' committees for school improvement, 254
- Citizens in a democracy, 103
- Citizens' survey committees, 256
- Citizenship, in a community, 310
- course in, 112
 - education of children for, 106, 115
 - as requirement for teachers, 50
- City and Country School, 106
- Civic clubs, 316
- Class size, 196, 289, 342
- for handicapped and gifted children, 194, 195
- Classification of pupils for instruction, 151, 191-197
- Classroom, activities in, 218
- cleaned by children, 292
 - as a community, 310-311
 - councils in, 239
 - cumulative records kept in, 268
 - democratic ideals supported in, 9
 - environment of, 100
 - focus on, 116-117
 - furniture in, 290
 - introduction to, of new pupils, 169
 - libraries in, 233
 - mailboxes in, 297
 - records stored in, 268
 - storage space in, 151, 284
- Cleanliness, 292
- Clerical personnel, bases for selection of, 297
- in report making, 272
 - for teachers, 127, 296, 297
- Clerical work, of principals, 251
- Clinics, 144, 193, 195
- Clubs, funds from, 280
- College personnel, assistance of, 218
- Colleges, department of elementary education in, 85
- of education, 69
 - staff improvement opportunities in, 69, 84, 86
- Colonial education, 136-137, 149
- Communications, activities in, 237-238
- media of, 325
- Community, agencies in, 121, 122, 325-326
- definition of, 309
 - factors in, in finding school beginners, 165-166
 - guide to, 319
 - improvement of, by school, 326-328
 - interest of, in teacher of children, 30
 - kinds of information about, from survey, 320

- Community (*continued*)
 - methods of informing, about schools, 324-325
 - and moral and spiritual education, 178
 - needs of, 68, 256
 - organizations in, 316
 - planning councils in, 104
 - problems of, 104, 123
 - recognition by, of teachers, 94
 - resources in, 81, 86, 112-123, 126, 127, 283
 - services in, for physically handicapped children, 195
 - size of, effect on ungraded classes, 153
 - study of, 321
 - surveys of, 256, 320-321
- Community Chest, 278, 326
- Community living, experiences in, for children, 310
- Community school, 308-313
 - definition of, 107
- Community-school relations (*see* School-community relations)
- Compulsory attendance, 35
- Compulsory education, 136
- Concerts, 236
- Conduct (*see* Behavior; Pupil conduct)
- Conference, for disciplinary problems, 210
 - parent-teacher-pupil, 184, 187
 - for reporting pupil progress, 79
 - See also* Professional conferences
- Conflicts, staff, resolution of, 78-81
- Conformity, 109
- Consensus, 77, 80
 - definition of, 16
 - development of, by teachers, 74
 - leader's role in developing, 14-16
 - for policy decisions, 75
 - through resolution of differences, 78, 79
- Conservation of resources, 40, 53
- Consolidated schools, 216
- Construction, costs of, 141, 148
 - of neighborhood school, 150
- Consultants, criteria for selection of, 197-198
 - for curriculum, 121
 - in problem definition, 14
 - for school improvement, 91
 - for stimulating group study, 82
- Continuing-contract laws, 51
- Continuing-contract plan, 259
- Continuing-teacher plan, 121, 145, 146-148, 202
- Continuity in learning, 111, 115-116
- Continuous program of school organization, 154
- Contract of employment, 51
- Contract plan for individualizing instruction, 139, 140
- Controversial problems, principal's role in, 15
- Conversation, 144
- Cooperation, atmosphere of, 71
- "Cooperative curriculum research," 132
- Cooperative methods, in democracy, 8
- Cooperative research, 92
- Cooperative study (*see* Group study)
- Cooperative Study in Elementary Education, 83
 - evaluative guide by, 128
- Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, 82
- Coordination, of curriculum improvement activities, 120-122
 - for effective plant utilization, 290-291
 - of instructional materials, 125-126
 - between levels of school system, 121
- Core curriculum, 114-116
- Corey, Stephen M., 13
- Corporal punishment, 57
- Correlation among content areas, 113
- Councils (*see* School councils)
- Counts, George S., 107
- County supervisors, 227
- Courtesy, 131
- Creative art program, 89
 - See also* Art
- Creativity, 237
- Crescent School, transportation problem in, 216-218
- Criticism, from high schools, 199
 - of schools, 236, 257, 307, 347
 - value of, in democracy, 103
- Cumulative record, 147, 183, 263-269
- Curriculum, change in, as social change, 130
 - of dame schools, 137
 - definitions of, 99-100
 - development, concepts of, 35
 - expansion of, 40
 - general legal requirements for, 52-53
 - improvement of, from community study, 319
 - coordination of activities for, 120-122
 - instead of teacher rating, 261
 - principal's role in, 117-129
 - principles for, 129-132
 - legal aspects of, 52-55
 - organization patterns of, 111-117
 - planning of, 99-132, 323
- Custodian, 126, 291-292, 295

- Dalton Plan, 139
- Dame schools, 137, 149, 346
- Dance, special teacher for, 88
- Dare the School Build a New Social Order?*, 107
- Davis, Allison, 172
- Decentralization, 76, 79
 - See also* Autonomy of school; Local school
- Decisions, making of, 73, 74, 76
 - moral responsibility for, 345-346
 - timing of, 350
- Delinquents, 193, 209
- Democracy, 68
 - basic principles of, 8-9, 9-10
 - conduct antithetical to, 106
 - differences of opinion in, 78
 - dynamic, 28
 - education for, of children, 9, 27, 114
 - function of schools in, 9
 - political, 103
 - progressive improvement of, 103
 - in rural communities, 306
 - schools in, 109
- Demonstration activities, 236-237
- Demonstration lessons, 227
- Dental checkups, 175, 220
- Department of Agriculture, 321
- Department of Classroom Teachers, 39
- Department of Commerce, 321
- Department of Elementary School Principals, 38, 118
 - human resources identified in yearbook of, 122
 - study by, of principal's authority, 249-250
 - of principal's duties, 42-43
 - of principal's role in administration, 247-248
 - of principal's role in budget, 281
 - survey by, of professional education for principal, 41
- Departmentalization, 113, 141-143, 231
- Desks, 206
- Developmental tasks, 170
- Deviates, 192-193
- Devotionals, 178
- Dewey, John, 156
- Dictaphones, 297
- Differences of opinion, harmonizing, 78-81
- Diplomacy, 80
- Directed play, 151
- Discipline, in early American schools, 346
 - by peers, 239
 - reducing problems of, 206-210
- Disease, prevention of, 112
- Dismissal of teachers, 51
- Distribution of instructional supplies, 284-286
- Double session, 151-153
 - space problems in, 289
- Drama, 88
- Dramatics, 324
- Dropouts, 138
- Duplicated announcements, 83, 120
 - facilities for, 296
- Duties and responsibilities of principal,
 - current status of, 42-43
 - See also* specific areas
- Economic status, of principal, 41-42
 - school's improvement of, 28
- Education, in colonial times, 24, 27
 - cost of, 141, 145
 - of the few, 101
 - modern, 108
 - as objective "science," 307
 - philosophy of, 15
 - as a state function, 36, 269
- Educational leadership, nature of, 3-22
 - See also* Leadership
- Educational Policies Commission, identification by, of values to be taught, 102-103
 - study by, of moral and spiritual values in public schools, 176, 177
- Educational program, effect on, of new school buildings, 294
 - procedure for evaluating, 260-261
 - See also* Curriculum
- Elementary school, 235
 - aspirations motivating development of, 26-29
 - basic principles underlying, 27-29
 - as community institution, 305-329
 - depression and wartime effects on, 346
 - diversification of responsibilities of, 39-40
 - evaluation of, 82
 - See also* School(s)
- Elementary school principal, conception
 - of role of, by principals, 248
 - current status of, 40-43
 - See also* Principal(s)
- Elementary school principalship, choice
 - as career, 340-341
 - development of, 24-44
 - recognition of, 26, 350
- Elementary school teachers, shortage of, 342
 - See also* Teacher(s)
- Elliott, Harrison S., 16, 17

- Emergencies, 60-61
 first aid for, 220-221
 Emerging curriculum, 113
 Emotional adjustment of delinquents, 193
 Emotional climate of school, 20, 251
 See also Environment
 Emotional growth, 175-176
 Emotional health, 128
 Emotions, in discussion of issues, 80
 Employment of teachers, legal aspects of, 51
 on ten-month basis, 123
 on twelve-month basis, 319
Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 119
 English grammar school, 137
 Enrichment, 101, 140, 141, 144, 218, 290
 See also Art; Music; Physical education
 Enrollment, as factor in finding school
 beginners, 165
 industrial development effects on, 216
 in Lancastrian schools, 137
 in neighborhood school, 149
 prediction of, 341
 pressures of, on plant utilization, 289
 on school organization, 146, 148, 150, 151
 Environment, of classroom, 210
 democratic, 9
 creation of, 12
 effect of, on test results, 172
 for fostering talent, 237
 healthful, 219
 for learning, 100
 of school, 288, 292
 condition of, for guidance, 205
 protected, 199
 for teachers, conducive to leadership
 from group, 90
 principal's role in setting, 271
 Epidemic, 73
 Equipment, constructed by parents, 257
 See also Plant, and equipment
 Erosion of school grounds, 328
 Errands, 60, 120
 Esthetics, 112
 Ethical aspects of principalship, 46-62
 Ethical Culture School, 106
Evaluating the Elementary School: A Guide to Cooperative Study, 83
 Evaluation, 127-129
 of educational program, 82-83, 260-261
 of lunch program, 77
 of money-raising activities, 282
 oral, in lower grades, 128
 by parents, 105
 of preschool orientation, 168
 of pupil guidance, 212
 of pupil progress, 179-188
 class work samples for, 268
 criteria for systems in, 185-186
 of deviates, 195
 forward-looking practices in, 186-188
 generalizations about, 179-180
 by school councils, 128
 of school organization, 155-156
 of school store, 280-281
 in secondary schools, 204
 of services by office, 299
 of teacher effectiveness, 260
 of textbooks and workbooks, 286-287
 written, in upper grades, 128
 Evaluative instruments, 83
 Evidence, in evaluating pupil progress, 179, 182
 in improving attendance records, 271
 respect for, 16-17
 Excursions (*see* Field trips)
 Excuses, attendance, 271
 "Exhibit" folder, 187
 "Expanding community" concept, 115
 Experimentalism, philosophy of, 307
 Experimentation, 206
 attitude toward, of parents, 132
 conditions conducive to, 71, 93
 encouragement of, 92-94
 by principal, 336-337
 in administrative procedures, 300
 procedure for principal in, 93-94
 on self-contained classroom, 146
 Expert in curriculum theory and practice, 104
 See also Consultants
 Expulsion of pupils, 57
 Extracurricular activities (*see* Pupil-conducted activities)
- Faculty (*see* Staff; Teacher[s])
 Faculty book club, 87
 Faculty bulletin board, 269
 Faculty lounge, 88
 Failure, 199
 See also Nonpromotion
 Fairs, 311
 Faith, in education, 40
 in the future, 9
 in people, 18-19
 Family, 35
 Family education, 40
 Farming, 312
 Fathers, 168, 322
 See also Parents

- Fears of teachers, 90
- Federal assistance to lunchrooms, 223
- Fees, 124, 278
- Field trips, 58, 127
 - buses used for, 219
 - cooperative planning for, 116
 - as learning experience, 100
 - legal aspects of, 59
 - parent-teacher-organization assistance in, 323
 - planning for, 59
- Files, for class work samples, 268
 - of community resources, 122-123
 - for office, 297
 - for records, 268
 - for reports, 273
- Films, 126
- Filmstrips, 16, 126, 127
- Finances, 172
 - See also* Financial support; Funds
- Financial campaigns, 326
 - See also* Money-raising campaigns
- Financial status of lunchroom, 223-224
- Financial support of elementary schools, 37
 - attendance factor in, 269, 271
 - legal aspects of, 47-48
- Fines, 287
- Fire patrols, 59
- Fireproof storage, 268
- First aid, 220-221
 - by principal or teacher, 61
- First-graders, mental age of, 171
- Flag salutes, 55
- Flanders, Jesse Knowlton, 40
- Folk dancing, 324
- Follow-up of elementary school graduates, 204
- Foreign language teachers, 230, 231
- Formal education, 35
- Foshay, A. Wellesley, 139, 144
- Free lunches, 273
- Freedom, of action, 12
 - in school environment, 205
 - for teachers, 74, 75, 126
- Friendship, 81, 119, 196
- Frugality, 40, 53
- Fund-raising activity, 240, 278, 279-280
- Fundamental skills, 127, 152, 198
- Funds, 49, 87, 233
 - centralization of, 279-280
 - for school council activities, 240
 - for substitute teachers, 84
- Furniture, built by children, 291
 - for cafeteria, 224
 - under crowded conditions, 290
 - for lunchroom, 222
 - for office, 297
- Garden, school, 328
- Gary, Indiana, platoon system in, 140
- Geography, 112, 311
- Gifted children, 146, 152, 193, 230, 296
 - See also* Bright pupils
- Goals, agreement on, 78-79
 - changing, 209
 - community agreement on, for school, 309
 - leader's role in defining, 7, 12-14
- Government, 103
 - activities on, 238-240
 - contracts from, 116
 - instructional aids from, 283
 - study of, 311
- Grade classifications for deviates, 194, 195
- Grade levels, 120, 121
- Graded school, 29-30, 136-146
- Grading (*see* Marking)
- Grading systems, flexibility of, 192
- Graphic arts, 88
- Great Depression, 305
- Grieder, Calvin, 259
- Group behavior, study of, 320
- Group living, 310
- Group membership skills, 79
- Group processes, 107
- Group projects in community study, 321
- Group punishment, 209
- Group singing, 151
- Group study, by faculty, 81-87
 - in parent-teacher organizations, 323
- Group welfare and individual welfare, balance between, 105-109
- Group work, physical setting for, 14
- Grouping of pupils, 192
 - by age, 29
 - effect of, on bright children, 172
 - in individual classroom, 195-197
 - by levels of attainment, 29
- Groups, ideal size of, 13-14
- Guidance, 205-212
 - in continuing-teacher plans, 146
 - in double-session pattern, 152
 - from records of pupil progress, 182, 183
 - by teachers, 116
- Guidance counsellors, 210, 212
 - visiting teacher as, 229
- Guidance point of view, 187
- Haggerty-Olsen-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules, 176
- Haiman, Franklyn S., 80

- Half-day programs (*see* Double session)
- Hand, Harold C., 256
- Handbook for Self-appraisal and Improvement of Elementary Schools*, 83
- Handbooks for teachers, 71, 253
- Handicapped children, 146, 193, 231, 232
 - See also* Deviates
- Head teacher, 24
- Headmaster, 24, 137
- Health, 100, 110, 112
 - community problems of, 312
 - information about, recording of, 183, 263
 - measures for, in preschool orientation, 168
 - program for, 81, 89
 - records of, 262
- Health center, 268, 297
- Health education, 40
- Health room, 144
- Health services and facilities, 219-221
- Hearing deficiencies, 194, 232
- Heck, Arch O., 262
- High school, 38, 238
 - guidance counsellors in, 210
 - preparation for, 199
 - See also* Secondary school
- High school principals, 121
 - salaries of, 42
- High school principalship, 24
- High school teachers, 142
- History, 112, 311
- Hobbies, 122, 324, 328
- Holistic approach to learning, 231
- Home background, 262
- Home economics specialists, 222
- Home visitations, 73
- Hot lunches, 150, 277
- Housing accommodations for teachers, 72
- Human growth and development, 32, 56, 69, 155
- Human relations, 107, 141, 143, 146, 253
- Human resources, 122
 - See also* Resource persons
- Humanities, 32
- Humor, in controversial discussions, 80
- I.Q. (*see* Intelligence quotient)
- Ignorance, 117
- Immunity principle, 55-56
- Immunization programs, 175
- In-service clinics, 228
- In-service teacher education, 37, 148, 211, 227, 261, 296
- Individual(s), differences between, 14, 116, 170, 196, 199, 203
 - respect for, 8, 103, 105
 - talents of, released by leader, 10, 11-12
 - value of, in democracy, 27
 - welfare of, 105-109
- Individual liberties, 209
- Individual study, 86-87
- Individualization of instruction, 139-140
 - in colonial schools, 137
 - for deviates, 194
 - in double-session classes, 290
 - in groups within classroom, 196
- Industrialization, 306
 - effect of, on enrollment, 216
 - on formal education, 35
- Industry, instructional aids from, 283
- Inferiority feelings, 199
- Information, need for, 76-78
 - principal's responsibility for providing, 91
 - See also* Evidence
- Ingenuity, 80
- Initiative, 237
- Injuries, of pupils, legal aspects of, 55, 57-58
 - of teachers, 49
- Inoculations, 167
- Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland, 81
- Instructional improvement, 35, 227, 229
- Instructional materials, 123-125, 282-288
 - adaptation of, 123-124
 - community as source of, 311-313
 - in core curriculum, 115
 - for differences in abilities, 196
 - in early elementary schools, 29, 138
 - free and inexpensive, 283
 - not anticipated at budget preparation, 280
 - prepared by teacher, 152, 153
 - selection of, by principal, 249, 250
 - in separate subjects curriculum, 112
- Instructional program, 291
 - See also* Curriculum
- Intellectual skills, 79, 109
- Intelligence, 171-173
 - in decision making, 9
 - of the group, 18
- Intelligence quotient, 172, 173, 174, 193
- Inter-age grouping, 145, 150-151
- Interclassroom visitation by teachers, 229
- Intercommunication system, 298
- Interest spans, 238
- Interests of children, 86, 104, 106
 - as basis for grouping, 196
 - in child-centered curriculum, 112
 - in core curriculum, 115

- Intermediate units, 145, 149
- Interviews, in community study, 321
 - with parents, 296
 - with prospective personnel, 81, 259
 - with substitute teachers, 259
- Intervisitation by teachers, 204
 - See also Visits*
- Inventories, of instructional supplies, 285
 - of resources, 122
- Iowa, certification requirements for principals in, 37
 - court decision in, on Bible reading, 54
- It Starts in the Classroom*, 325
- Janitor (*see Custodian*)
- Jehovah's Witnesses, 55
- Jig saws, 144
- Johnson, Granville B., Jr., 172
- Junior high school, 203
 - See also Secondary school*
- Kardex files, 297
- Kilns, 144
- Kindergarten, 36, 152, 165
- Lancastrian movement, 137
- Landscaping, 207, 328
- Language, 112
 - principal's use of, 80
 - workbooks for, 124
- Language arts, 110, 112
- Latin grammar school, 346
- Lavatory facilities, 206
- Lay citizens, 105
 - See also Parents*
- Leader(s), authoritarian, 12
 - democratic methods of, 155
 - as effective teacher, 17-18
 - functions of, in democracy, 11
 - procedure of, in controversial discussions, 80
 - qualities possessed by good, 19-22
- Leadership, challenge to educational, 333-351
 - definition of, 7
 - democratic, 7, 9-10, 75, 350
 - development of, in children, 150, 237
 - differing ideas about nature of, 6
 - function of, 7
 - nature of, 7-11
 - obstacles to educational, 339-347
 - principles of, in curriculum change, 132
 - in school organization, 154
 - procedure for principal in, 90-91
 - from the staff, 89-91
 - in school-community relations, 328-329
 - at staff meetings, 84
 - timing principle in, 338
 - way of exercising, 13
- Learning experiences, apart from school, 100
 - from field trips, 58
 - from home-school-community relationships, 104
 - in neighborhood schools, 150
 - organization of, 110-117
 - planned, in separate subjects curriculum, 112
 - psychologically sound, 116
 - some factors determining, 122
 - by substitute teachers, 259
 - for teachers, 80
 - in ungraded classes, 153
- Learning materials, 127
 - See also Instructional materials*
- Learning process, 106
- Learning skills, 100
- Learning-teaching process, 232
- "Least group size" principle, 13-14
- Leaves of absence, 51
- Ledger-type records, 268
- Legal aspects, 46-62
 - of attendance reports, 273
 - of emergencies, 220-221
 - of moral and spiritual instruction, 177
- Legislation, influence of, on curriculum, 40
 - on teaching religious values, 177
 - See also State laws*
- Letter grades, 181
- Letters, to parents, 184
 - supplementing report card, 79
- Librarians, 233, 287
- Library, 144
 - as classroom, 289
 - instructional materials stored in, 127
 - operation of, 311
 - for parents, 323
 - principal's use of, 86
- Library fee, 49
- Library fines, 278
- Library records, kept by children, 120
- Library services, 232-234
 - by children, 60
 - by parent-teacher organization, 323
- Licensing (*see Certification*)
- Lincoln School, 106
- Local control of education, 28-29, 47, 107, 262

- Local school, autonomy principle in, 281
 policy decisions in, 75
 Local school community, 121
See also Community
 Local school district, 69
 Lock-step method of instruction, 113, 139
 Lockers, 206
 Louisiana, attendance improvement in, 271
 Lunch period, as part of curriculum, 100
 Lunches, free, 273
 Lunchroom, accounting procedures for, 278-279
 as classroom, 289
 conditions in, producing disciplinary problems, 207
 for enrichment experiences in double-session classes, 290
 poor characteristics of, 225-226
 in self-contained classroom, 144
 service in, by children, 60
See also Cafeteria
 Lunchroom facilities, 221-226
 factors in improving, 77
 Lunchroom proceeds, 49, 120
- McCullum v. Board of Education of School District No. 71*, 54-55
 McGregor, Douglas, 70
 McGuffey readers, 138
 Mackenzie, Gordon N., 13
 Magazines, for children, 297
 as instructional materials, 123
 nonprofessional, 86
 professional, 86, 94, 119
 Mailboxes, 297
 Maintenance of plant and equipment, 291-293
 Maintenance specialists, 291
 Major human activities, 111, 114
 Majority rule, 16, 74, 78, 80
 Maladjustments, 175, 229
 March of Dimes, 278
 Marking, 180-182
 in attendance registers, 269
 principal's role in improvement of, 185-186
 Maryland, patriotic requirements in, 53
 Master's degree, 41
 Materials (*see* Instructional materials)
 "Materials center," 126
 Materials fee, 49
 Maturity, as leadership quality, 10-11
 qualities of, 19
 steps for developing, 11
 Medical examinations, 220
- Meetings, 120
See also Staff meetings
 Memorization, 113
 Mental age, of six-year-olds, 171
 Mental growth, 171-174
 Mental health (*see* Morale)
 Mental hygiene, 56
 Messenger service, 60
 Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 75
 Miel, Alice, 93
 Military establishments, 166
 Milk dispenser, 222
Minersville v. Gobitis, 55
 Money-raising campaigns, 240, 278, 279-280
 Monitorial system of instruction, 137, 139, 143
 Minority opinion, 78
 Montagu, Ashley, 8
 Moral character, 50
 Moral and ethical principles, 273
 Moral and spiritual growth, 176-179
 Moral and spiritual values, 102-103
 legal aspects of instruction in, 53-55
 Morale, under crowded conditions, 343
 definition of, 70
 under democratic leadership, 7
 development of, by principal, 71-75
 of pupils, 145
 of service staff, 292
 of teachers, 50, 197, 236, 257, 285, 298
 Mothers, 120, 168, 175, 297
See also Parents
 Motion pictures, 16
 Multiple listings of books, 53
 Music, 40, 101, 112, 217
 in departmentalization, 143
 in double-session classes, 290
 parent-teacher organization assistance in, 324
 in platoon system, 140
 special teacher for, 88, 141, 230
 supervisors of, 227, 228
 Music center, 144
 Musical instruments, 144
- Narcotics, 40, 53
 National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 252
 National Education Association, 38
 as resource for health record forms, 220
 staff improvement opportunities by, 69
 study by, of legal status of teachers, 61
 Nationalistic schools, 27
 Natural resources, 86, 318

- Natural sciences, 32
- Naval establishments, 166
- Needs, 82
 - of children, 106, 113, 115, 148
 - of society, 106, 107
- Neighborhood schools, 145, 149-150
- New Education, 108
- New England states, 136
 - See also* Colonial education
- New pupils, identification of, 165-167
- New school buildings, 294
- New York, certification requirements for principals in, 37
 - school district's legal responsibility in, 55
- News releases, 324
- Newspapers, as instructional materials, 123, 127
- Nonpromotion of children, number of, 200
 - reasons for, 198-199
- Normal curve concept, 181
- Normal schools, 32, 69
- Norton, Maurice S., 340
- Nuclear energy development projects, 166
- Number system, 100
- Nursery school, 36, 165
- Nutrition, 40, 223, 312, 328

- Oath, of allegiance, 50
 - loyalty, 50
- Observance of special days, 40
- Observation, of new pupils, 169
 - See also* Anecdotal records
- Off-campus workshops, 85
 - See also* Workshops
- Office, 295-299
 - books displayed in, 86
 - equipment for, 251
 - procedure for maintaining, 298-299
 - records stored in, 268
 - service in, by children, 60
 - storage in, of instructional materials, 285
- Oklahoma City, neighborhood schools in, 150
- One-room school, 145, 146
- Opaque projector, 288
- Open house, 311, 324
- Opinionnaires, 207, 321
- Organization (*see* School organization)
- Orientation, of children for higher unit, 121
 - preschool, 167-168
 - of pupils new to school, 168-169
 - for substitute teachers, 261
 - for teachers new to system, 71-73
- Otto, Henry J., 221
- Out-of-school experiences, 103-105
- Overstreet, Harry A., 10, 11
- Overstreet, Helen Bonaro, 10

- P.T.A., 120, 129, 218, 253, 272, 280
- Parent-teacher meetings, 288
- Parent-teacher organizations, 233, 321-324
- Parent-teacher planning, 116
- Parents, attitudes of, toward child-centered curriculum, 113
 - toward continuing-teacher plans, 148
 - toward lunchroom program, 223
 - toward marking symbols, 180
 - toward recreational activities, 236
 - toward school, 252
 - toward separate subjects curriculum, 112
- as cafeteria helpers, 257
- as cause of tardiness and absence, 208
- in the classroom, 84
- as clerical helpers, 296
- of high-school-bound children, 204
- informing, of accidents and illness, 61
- participation of, in attendance improvement, 271
 - in budget-making process, 281
 - in curriculum improvement, 104, 105
 - in double-session classes, 290
 - in enrichment periods, 218
 - in evaluation of school program, 128-129, 261
 - in experimentation, 93
 - in health care of children, 174, 220
 - in health center, 297
 - in identifying school beginners, 166
 - in library, 257
 - in lunchroom improvement, 222
 - in office improvement, 297
 - in orientation of new pupils, 169
 - in plant improvement, 294
 - in preparing resource materials, 287
 - in preschool orientation, 167, 168
 - in program improvement, 126
 - in pupil transportation, 216-217
 - in school clinic, 257
 - in school improvement, 91
 - in setting goals for curriculum, 116
 - in textbook utilization, 287
- permission from, for field trips, 59
 - for participation in school patrols, 60
- relations of, with teachers, 257
 - with visiting teacher, 229
- as relief for teachers, 88

Parents (*continued*)

- as resource persons, 122
- as substitute teachers, 257
- as supervisors of field trips, 59
- textbook purchase by, 286
- visits of, to school, 257
- Park Forest, Illinois, 165
- Parker School District, South Carolina,
 - anecdotal records in, 182
- Parliamentary procedure, 81
- Participation of teachers, 73, 119-120
- Parties, 234, 235, 240
- Patience, 80
- Patriotic observances, 53, 55
- Peer group relations, 201, 208, 232
- Peers, acceptance by, 175
- Percentage system of marking, 180
- Performance activities, 236-237
- Periodicals, 118
 - See also* Magazines; Professional magazines
- Personal relations, 314-315
- Personality, development of, 79, 106
 - respect for, 179
- Personnel resources for pupil guidance,
 - 210-212
- Petty cash fund, 127, 283
- Philbrick, J. D., 138
- Phonetic analysis, 102
- Phonograph records, 127, 144
- Physical abnormalities, 195
 - See also* Handicapped children
- Physical disabilities, 146
 - See also* Handicapped children
- Physical education, 112, 217
 - in departmentalization, 143
 - in platoon system, 140
 - special teacher for, 141, 230
 - supervisors of, 227, 228
- Physical growth, 174-175
- Physical health of children, 128
- Physical resources, 122
 - See also* Natural resources
- Physical skills, 79
- Physicians, 187, 220
 - See also* Public health officers
- Picnics, 88, 234, 235
- Pigors, Paul, 18
- Plan of Action for Children, 1953-55,*
 - 342
- Planning councils for curriculum improvement, 104-105
- Planning from evaluation, 129
- Plant, additions to, 294
 - conditions in, producing discipline problems, 206
 - and equipment, caring for, 288-295
 - for community functions, 326
 - improvement of, 293-294
 - principal's procedure regarding, 295
 - use of, as school council problem, 240
 - maintenance of, principal's role in, 292
 - utilization of, under platoon system, 140, 141
 - procedure for more effective, 290
- Plastic arts, 88
- Platoon school, 113, 140-141, 151
- Play-health center, 144
- Playground, 207
- Plays, 236
- Policy making, pupil representation in,
 - 207
 - reactions of teachers to participation in, 76
- Population, 36, 151
- Praise, 71, 91, 94, 95, 201
- Preadolescence, 115
- Preparation programs for teachers, 231
 - See also* Professional education
- Preschool children, 220
 - growth of, 175
 - orientation of, 167-168
- Preschool conferences, 319
- Preschool meetings, 227
 - See also* Staff meetings
- Pressure groups, 104, 178, 254
- Primary units, 145, 149, 202
- Principal(s), autocratic, 78
 - beginning, 15, 262
 - as community leader, 314-316
 - as final authority in school, 223
 - interests of, apart from vocation, 315
 - legal rights of, in relations with pupils, 56
 - as perennial student, 118, 119
 - personal qualities of, 315
 - personality of, 299
 - principles for, 21-22
 - in progress report conferences, 187
 - qualities of a good, 75, 80, 348-351
 - reading program for, 86, 87, 118
 - relation of, to superintendent, 47
 - as substitute teacher, 120
 - working day length for, 298
 - See also* Leader(s)
- Principal teacher, 24
- Private schools, 53
- Probationary period for teachers, 51, 259
- Problem-solving techniques, 116
- Problems, approach to, 349
 - defining of, 13

- Professional books, 86
 - See also Books; Reading program for principals
- Professional conferences, 69, 84, 118, 324
- Professional education, of principal, 41
 - financial accounting in, 279
 - of teacher, 31-35
- Professional growth, 81
 - See also In-service teacher education; Staff improvement programs
- Professional library, 270, 296
- Professional magazines, 86, 94, 119
- Professional organizations, 38-39, 87
- Program development, 99-132
- Program improvement, 271
 - See also Curriculum; Learning experiences
- Program planning for parent-teacher meetings, 323
- Progress, 149, 194, 262
 - See also Pupil progress
- Progressive education, 106
- Projectors, 291
- Projects, recording of, 187
- Promotion, of pupils, 149, 197-202
 - criterion of, 201
 - in early schools, 138, 143
 - principal's role in, 202
 - recorded in attendance register, 269
 - of staff, 259-260
 - procedure for principal in, 261
- Property, respect for, 288
- Prospective teachers, 81, 258
- Psychiatrists, 211
- Psychologists, 211
- Puberty, 175
- Public health facilities, 168
- Public health officers, 175, 220
- Public Health Service, 321
- Public health services, 195
- Public relations, 166, 167, 218, 224, 234
 - principal's role in, 324-325
- Public schools, 47, 256, 307
 - moral and spiritual values in, 102-103
 - nonsectarian, 53
- Publications, school, 237
- Publications for faculty, 253
- Pupil conduct, 56, 182, 230
 - legal aspects of control of, 57
 - See also Behavior
- Pupil-conducted activities, 234-241
- Pupil growth, 170-179, 235
- Pupil personnel policies, 163-188, 191-213
 - problems in, 164
- Pupil personnel services, supervisors of, 227
 - See also Personnel resources for pupil guidance
- Pupil progress, 197-202
- Pupil-teacher planning, 116, 226, 310
- Pupil welfare services, 216-226
- Pupils, 128, 174, 204
 - See also Children
- Questionnaire(s), in community study, 321
 - as means of identifying resource persons, 122
 - to parents, 129
 - for pupils, 207
 - to teachers, on continuing-teacher plan, 147
- Quincy Grammar School, 138
- Racial understanding, 312
- Rate, of growth, 149, 170
 - seasonal, 175
 - of learning, 139, 153
- Rating of teachers, 261
 - scales for, 260
- Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*, 123
- Reading, 100, 102, 110, 112
 - improvement of program in, 13
 - individualized instruction in, 140
 - workbooks for, 124
- Reading level, 124
- Reading program for principals, 86, 87, 118
- Reading schools, 137
- Reading skill, developed through groups, 196
- Reading specialists, 230
- Real estate taxes, 48
- Reason, reliance upon, in democracy, 8-9
- Recess periods, 281
- Recess for staff, 80
- Recommendations for employment, 51, 259
- Record-keeping (*see* Records)
- Record libraries, 233
- Recording action in staff discussion, 81
- Recording pupil progress, 182-183
 - principal's role in improving, 185-186
- Recordings, 16
- Records, 262-272
 - of accidents, 61
 - in accounting for funds, 282
 - in distribution of supplies, 285
 - of experimentation by teachers, 93
 - of health information, 220
 - and reports, 262
 - of requisitions, 283

- Records (*continued*)
 for school council funds, 240
 in securing supplies, 283-284
 in textbook distribution, 287
 transfer of, to secondary schools, 204
- Recreation for teachers, 88
See also Relaxation; Rest
- Recreational activities, 234-236
- Recreational facilities, 312
- Recreational program for children, 218
See also Physical education
- Red Cross, 278
- Re-employment of teachers, 51, 259
- Reference books, in individual classrooms, 233
- Reforestation, 312, 318
- Register of attendance, 269
- Registration of new pupils, 169
- Rehabilitation programs, 230
- Relations with pupils, legal aspects of, 55-61
- Relaxation for teachers, 142
See also Recreation; Rest
- Released-time, for physically handicapped children, 195
 for rehearsals, 228
 for religious instruction, 54
- Religion, 177, 178
 in public schools, 53, 54
- Religious instruction, 101
- Religious understanding, 312
- Remedial instruction, 125, 140, 290
- Remmlein, Madaline Kinter, 52
- Report cards, 79, 183
- Reporting to parents, of health checkups, 220
- Reporting pupil progress, 79, 183-184
 principal's role in improving, 185-186
- Reports, 272-274
 criteria for evaluating, 273-274
 principal's procedure for recommending changes in, 272
 on receipts and expenditures, 49
 and records, 262
- Requisitions, 282, 285
- Research, attitude toward, of teachers and administrators, 344
 on change, 105
 on child growth and development, 39
 on children's interests, 115
 on curricular practice, 132
 on curriculum improvement programs, 35
 on group processes, 107
 for identification of areas of living, 114
 on learning, 106, 307
 effect of, on relating experiences, 111
 on morale, in industry, 70
 on nonpromotion, 200-201, 202
 on participation in making changes, 74
 on phonetic analysis in reading, 102
 psychological, on child growth and development, 106
 on relatedness of learning, 140
 on teaching, 107
 on teacher participation in policy making, 76
- Research Division, National Education Association, study by, of departmentalization, 143
 of platoon system, 140
- Residential stability, 166
- Resource file, 119
- Resource guides, 123, 124
- Resource materials from worn texts, 287
- Resource persons, for accounting assistance, 279
 in community-centered program, 311
 in faculty group study, 81
 for individual study by teachers, 86
 other teachers as, 231-232
 for principals, 262
 for pupil guidance, 210-212
- Resource units, 123, 124, 319
- Resources, 122-127
 cooperative planning for use of, 125
 coordinated planning for, 116
 importance of, in child-centered curriculum, 113
 procedure for principal in identifying, 126-127
- Responsibility, development of, in children, 237, 291
 as teacher morale factor, 74
- Rest, for children, 152
 for teachers, 87-89, 142
- Retarded children, 230
See also Deviates; Handicapped children
- Retention, 149
See also Nonpromotion
- Retirement, 49
- Right of appeal, 74
- Rorschach Test, 176
- Rosenstengel, William E., 259
- Rotation of teachers, 147
- Rural areas, 166
- Rural communities, democracy in, 306
- Rural schools, 68, 216, 227
- Safety, 100, 240, 293
- Safety campaigns, 328
- Safety education, 40

INDEX

- Safety patrol, 218
- Salaries, 30, 344
 - in budget-making process, 281
 - of principals, 41, 150, 251
 - of teachers, 50, 140, 141, 151
 - teachers' participation in developing schedules for, 68
- Sandin, Adolph A., 192
- Sanitation, 288
- S and U marking symbols, 181-182
- School(s), as agency of social action, 312-313
 - as a community, 310-311
 - community conceptions of responsibilities of, 305
 - early, 137
 - health concerns of, 174, 221
 - responsibility of, for moral and spiritual growth, 176-177
 - social functions of, 102
 - totalitarian, 9
 - See also* Colonial education; Elementary school
- School building and equipment (*see* Plant)
- School buses (*see* Transportation)
- School-centered services, 215-234
 - principal's role in, 215, 240-241
- School-community relations, 305-308, 314-329
 - through lunchroom planning, 226
 - principal's role in, 309-310
 - principles for developing, 255-256
- School councils, 238-240
 - appraisal by, of school climate, 207
 - in distribution of supplies, 285
 - evaluation by, of school program, 128
- School day, length of, 151, 168, 219
- School district, building in, 166
 - immunity of, 55
- School grounds, beautification of, 291, 312
 - conditions of, producing disciplinary problems, 206-207
- School Housing Section, U.S. Office of Education, 294
- School improvement, 81, 90
 - See also* specific areas
- School organization, 136-156
 - criteria of, 146, 155-156
 - current trends in, 146-154
 - importance of, in transition, 203
 - principal's role in, 154-155
- School patrols, 59-60
- School plant (*see* Plant)
- School policies, formulation of, 75-78
 - principal's role in determining, 249
- School publications, 237
- School rules, 209
- School stores, 280-281
 - funds from, 278
- School systems, 79, 124, 212
- School treasurer, 282
- School year, 36
- Science, 40, 110, 112
 - application of, to human relations, 107
- Scientific methods, 68
- Scientific principles, 112
- Scope, definition of, 110
- Search, Preston, 139
- Seclusiveness, 175
- Secondary school, 30, 31
 - during depression, 346
 - organizational structures in, 154
 - pupil readiness for, 203
 - See also* High school; Junior high school
- Secretarial help, 285
 - for teachers, 94
- Security, for children, 141
 - for teachers, 71, 90, 93, 112, 131
- Self-confidence, 180
- Self-contained classroom, 143-144, 232
- Self-discipline, 210
 - of group, 239
- Self-evaluation, 81, 205, 260, 317-318
 - See also* Evaluation
- Self-expression, 237, 238
- Self-government, 238, 240, 311
- Self-guidance, 106
- Self-image of principal, 11
- Self-respect, 344-345
- Self-understanding, 10, 348
- Seminars for staff improvement, 69
- Separate subjects curriculum, 111-112
- Sequence, in core curriculum, 115
 - definition of, 111
- Service centers, 144, 145
- "Service research," 132
- Service staff, relations between professional and, 292
- Sex education, 101
- Sick leave, 49, 73
- Sight-saving classes, 194
- Slow eaters, 225
- Slow-learners, 146, 172, 192, 198, 200
 - See also* Deviates
- Small communities, 293
 - See also* Rural communities
- Small school, 145-146, 150, 278
- Smog, 123
- Social action experiences, 328
- Social adjustments, 201

- Social change, 9, 28, 102, 305
 Social education, 223
 "Social engineering," 107
 Social forces affecting principalship, 344-347
 Social growth, 175-176
 Social living skills, 100
 Social philosophy, supported by leadership, 7-9
 Social sciences, 32
 Social status, improvement of, 28
 Social studies, 110, 112, 116
 Social work, 230
 Social workers, 209, 211, 272
 Socioeconomic backgrounds, 305
 Socioeconomic changes, 35-36
 Sociometric checks, 196
 Sociometric devices, 176
 Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 38, 128
 Space problem in lunchroom, 222
 Space utilization in school office, 297
 Special classes, for deviates, 193, 194
 See also Gifted children
 Special instructional services, 226-234
 Special service centers, 290
 Special school services (*see* School-centered services)
 Special schools for deviates, 193, 194
 Special teachers, as relief for classroom teacher, 88
 Special teaching personnel, 230-232
 Specialists, 140, 193
 See also Consultants; Personnel resources
 Speech, 112
 Speech defects, 232
 Speech deficiencies, 194
 Speech therapists, 230
 Spelling, 102, 110, 112
 workbooks for, 124
 Spiritual values (*see* Moral and spiritual values)
 Split grade, 150, 151
 "Spring roundups," 167
 Staff, as consultants in service centers, 144
 cooperative planning by, 113
 evaluation by, of learning program, 129
 leadership of, 67-96
 principal's role in, 70-96
 participation of, in additions to plant, 294
 in administration, 67-68
 in attendance record-keeping, 269-271
 in budget-making process, 281
 in planning councils for curriculum improvement, 105
 in policy formation, 67
 in record-keeping, 263
 in school-community relations, 317-321
 in securing supplies, 283
 in selection of teachers, 258
 selection of, 258-259
 criterion of, 19
 See also Teacher(s)
 Staff improvement programs, need for, 68-70
 See also In-service teacher education
 Staff meetings, improvement of, 83-84
 interpretation of board policies at, 253
 about library, 234
 parents' attendance at, 324
 preschool, suggestions for discussion in, 5
 for promotion problems, 197-202
 school time for, 84
 service staff attendance at, 292
 social period prior to, 89
 Staff-principal relations, 81
 Staff relations, 17, 125
 Staff study of community, 317-318
 Stanford-Binet Tests of Intelligence, 171, 173
 State, legal rights of, in specifying curriculum requirements, 40
 textbook selection by, 53
 State adoption of textbooks, 286
 State board of education, 50
 State department of education, 36-37, 86, 226, 262, 270
 State funds, 56, 227
 State history, 53
 State laws, on disposing records, 268
 about school buses, 219
 supervisors check on conformance to, 227
 about uneducable children, 194
 State supervisors, 226
 State system of education, 137
 Status quo, maintenance of, 102-103
 Stinnett, T. M., 341
 Storage, of instructional materials, 284-286
 of personal belongings, 153, 289
 Storage facilities, 127, 144, 268
 Story time, 151
 Storytelling, 88
 Student councils (*see* School councils)
 Student teachers, 218
 Subgroups, staff, 91
 Subject matter relationships, 112

- Subjects to be taught, local requirements for, 53
 - state requirements for, 52
- Substitute teachers, 84, 120, 259
- Suburban areas, 149
- Summer activities for teachers, 319
- "Summer roundups," 324
- Summer schools for teachers, 86
- Sumption, Merle R., 256
- Superintendent(s), 47
 - administrative councils set up by, 252
 - approval from, for staff meetings on school time, 84
 - attendance records submitted to, 270
 - awareness of, of staff activities, 91
 - conception held by, of principal's role, 248
 - employment by, of teachers, 142
 - informing, of experimentation, 93
 - principal's relation to, 116, 223
 - problems submitted to, by teachers, 74, 76
 - role of, in additions to plant, 294
 - in planning for guidance resources, 212
 - in re-employment of teachers, 259
 - in stimulating group study, 82
- Supervising principals, 249
 - salaries of, 41, 42
- Supervision of instruction, 211
 - See also* Supervisory services
- Supervisors, 85, 93, 121, 122, 229
- Supervisory services, 226-229
- "Supplements" for cumulative records, 263
- Suspension, 57
- Symbols in marking, 179-182
- Talents, of children, 86, 106
 - of parents, 122
 - principal's satisfaction from others', 350
 - release of, by leader, 11-12
- Tardiness, 210, 229
 - causes of, 208
- Tattling, 175
- Tax support of schools, 137
- Taxes, 48, 281
- Teacher(s), as advisory groups in policy making, 252
 - attendance records kept by, 269
 - attitude of, toward group study, 82
 - autocratic, 78
 - autonomy of, in utilizing textbooks, 287
 - of children, changing status of, 30-31
 - in core curriculum, 115
 - daily relief for, from children, 88
 - in double-session pattern, 152
 - effect on, of separate subjects curriculum, 112
 - general requirements for certification of, 32-33
 - incompatibility of, with particular child, 192
 - individual study by, 86-87
 - ineffective, 148
 - insecurities of, 228
 - instructional materials prepared by, 123, 124
 - legal rights of, 49-52
 - in relations with pupils, 56
 - needs of, 119
 - new to system, 72
 - off-duty, in double-session classes, 290
 - primary, in reporting pupil progress, 79
 - qualities of a good, 31-32, 116
 - relation of, to special supervisors, 227-228
 - to special teacher, 232
 - responsibility of, for children's health, 219-220
 - for children's physical growth, 175
 - role of, in articulation between units, 204
 - in classroom improvement, 293
 - in curriculum improvement, 120
 - in decision making, 73
 - in distribution of instructional materials, 284-285
 - in health concerns, 174
 - in identifying school beginners, 166
 - in plant improvement, 293
 - in school's service to community, 317-321
 - in securing supplies, 283
 - selection of, by principals, 249, 250, 261
 - shortage of, 69, 142, 258
 - as specialists in subject areas, 113
 - as sponsors of school publications, 237
 - summer schools for, 86
 - supervision by, of lunchroom, 224-225
 - unqualified, 69
 - upper-grade, in reporting pupil progress, 79
 - use of workbooks by, 125
 - See also* Staff
- Teacher absence, 259
- Teacher education programs, 142, 319
 - See also* In-service teacher education; Professional education
- Teacher improvement, 227
 - See also* Staff improvement

- Teacher-librarian. 233
- Teacher load, 151
- Teacher lounge, 86
- Teacher-per-grade organizational pattern, 138, 143, 146
- Teacher-pupil conferences, 196
- Teacher-pupil planning, 113, 126
- Teacher rating, 259-261
- Teacher supervision, 226-234
- Teaching, good, 172
 - differing ideas about nature of, 15
 - respect for, as profession, 344
- Teaching principals, 41, 249, 253
- Techniques related to problems, 91-92
- Technological advances, 39
 - See also* Industrialization
- Telephone, answering of, 120, 296
 - for checking on absences, 272
 - for children, 296
- Tenure, 259
 - legal aspects of, 50, 51
 - for principals, 52
 - recommendation for, 258
- Terminology as cause of conflicts, 78
- Testing, conducted by visiting teacher, 211
- Tests, analysis of, 174
 - for group, 173
 - recording results of, 183
 - records of, 262
 - standardized recording of, 187
 - See also* specific tests
- Texas guide for evaluation of elementary schools, 83
- Textbooks, 286-288
 - adaptation of, to local conditions, 123
 - as basis of separate subjects curriculum, 111
 - cooperative planning for use of, 125
 - legal aspects of selection of, 53
 - misuse of, 124
 - payment for lost, 278
 - professional, 82
 - storage of, 284
- Thelen, Herbert, 13
- Thematic Apperception Test, 176
- Thomas, W. I., 71
- Thrift, 40, 53
- Time schedules for staff planning, 129
- Timing principle in leadership process, 185, 338
- Track plan for individualizing instruction, 139
- Traffic patrols, 60
- Transients, 165, 169
- Transition, from grade to grade, 197
 - from home to school, 150
 - into junior or senior high school, 203-205
- Transportation for pupils, 216-219
 - cost of, 218
 - in neighborhood schools, 149
 - principal's role in, 219
- Travel, 86
- Travel experiences of parents, 122
- Truancy, 175, 210, 272
 - causes of, 208
- Truant officer, 229
- Twelve-grade program, 38, 154
- Typing skill of principal, 273, 297
- Ungraded classes, 153
 - in colonial times, 24
- Unions, 293
- Unit(s), recording of, 187
 - of work, 116
- Unit teaching, 287
- U.S. Office of Education, 36, 38
 - estimates of salaries by, 42
 - study by, of departmentalization, 143
 - of individualized instruction, 140
 - of platoon system, 140
 - of self-contained classroom, 144
 - of ungraded classes for slow-learners, 153
- Universal elementary school education, 27
- Universities (*see* Colleges)
- University of Chicago Laboratory School, 106
- University research bureaus, 256
- Urban centers, 193
- Urban communities, democracy in, 306
- Urban schools, 41
- Urbanization, 306
- Value judgment, as basis for evaluative activity, 83
- Values, 102-103, 178
 - agreement on, for curriculum improvement, 131
 - of American life, 20-21
 - conflicting, as cause of discipline problems, 209
 - as determinants of teaching content, 107
 - differing, as cause of conflicts, 78
 - negation of, by conformity, 109
 - persistency of, 79
 - for schools and community, 122
 - supported by school, 288
 - teaching of, 102
 - See also* Moral and spiritual values
- Vandalism, 291
- Vertical planning, 30

- Virginia, areas-of-living curriculum in, 114
- Vision surveys, 175
- Visiting teachers, 229-230
- in attendance improvement, 271
- criteria for selection of, 211
- as guidance counsellors, 210-211
- in progress report conferences, 187
- Visitors, helped by children, 120
- Visits, to children's homes, 86
- to classrooms, by supervisors, 228
- to industries, by teacher, 86
- to other schools, in community study, 317
- by principal, 118
- by teachers, 86, 120, 229
- to secondary school, by children, 204
- Vocational education, 346
- Voluntary groups for community study, 319
- Welfare agencies, 316
- See also* Community, agencies in
- Western Electric Company, research by, on consistent behavior of foremen, 73
- on effect of mental attitudes on production, 70
- Winnetka Plan, 139
- Wirt, William A., 140
- Workbooks, 124-125, 287
- Workmen's compensation laws, 49
- Workshops, for custodians, 295
- for staff improvement, 69, 84, 228
- World Almanac*, 321
- World geography, 112
- World understanding, 40
- Writing, 112
- Writing schools, 137
- Youth-serving groups, 316
- See also* Community, agencies in
- Zoning regulations, 166

